

**LABOUR INTENSIVE PUBLIC WORK (LIPW) PROGRAMME AS AN
EMPOWERMENT TOOL FOR YOUTH DEVELOPMENT: THE
GHANAIAN EXPERIENCE**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis entitled “**LABOUR INTENSIVE PUBLIC WORK (LIPW) PROGRAMME AS AN EMPOWERMENT TOOL FOR YOUTH DEVELOPMENT: THE GHANAIAAN EXPERIENCE**” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

A handwritten signature in black ink, consisting of a series of loops and a long horizontal stroke, positioned above a solid horizontal line.

SIGNATURE

23/02/2020

DATE

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my son and daughter, Nana and Esi. I love you both.

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Mpho Mildred Dichaba for her guidance and encouragement. I am also grateful to Dr. Abdul Kadri Yahaya and Mr. Samuel Twumasi Amoah for taking time out of their busy schedule to read and offer some suggestions for this work. You have been a source of encouragement during my lonely days.

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ABSTRACT

The Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme under the Ghana Social Opportunity Project (GSOP), is a social protection programme initiated by the Government of Ghana, to offer jobs and income earning opportunities to some targeted rural residents, especially the youth, through the application of labour intensive technology in the construction of community infrastructure that has the potential of generating secondary employment. This is a mixed method study sought to provide an account on the Ghanian version of LIPW programmes. The study assessed and identified the challenges facing the programme implementation from beneficiary and implementers' perspective in order to set the platform for an interactive feedback between project implementers and community members for the smooth implementation of future LIPW programmes. The study also assessed the impact of the programme on poverty and migration among the youth in Ghana.

In identifying the challenges facing the programme from implementers' perspective, 15 key project implementers were interviewed. An interview guide and a questionnaire were also developed to collect data from 500 beneficiaries of the programme to know their challenges. In assessing the impact of the programme on migration among the youth, questionnaires were administered to 239 households in beneficiary communities and 189 households from non-beneficiary communities of the LIPW programme. Finally, data was collected from 90 youth who benefited from the programme and 90 youth who did not benefit from the programme to compare and determine the extent to which the programme has contributed in reducing poverty among the youth.

The study revealed that the key challenge facing the programme implementation from the implementers' perspective is capacity problem involving, inadequacy of staff to implement the programme at the district level, frequent breakdown of vehicles for monitoring, and delays in the

release of funds for commencement of project. Beneficiaries of the programme also indicated that they were not satisfied with the amount of money they were receiving as wage for their labour. They were also unhappy with the delays in payment of their wages and the period of engagement in the programme. The study found out that the LIPW programme under the GSOP has not contributed in reducing migration among the youth. However, the programme has contributed to reducing poverty among the youth. The study therefore recommends that capacity gap analysis conducted before project initiation should include adequacy of staff and logistics to cater for any deficiency. It is strongly recommended that beneficiaries of the programme should be consulted in setting the wage rate to avoid resentment provoking misunderstanding between beneficiaries and project implementers. The study further recommended that the government should scale up the programme to cover more communities in order to reduce poverty among the youth in Ghana. Finally, the study proposed a new model for LIPW for the youth known as ‘LIPW +3Cs’. This model incorporates three Cs, that is ‘C’ompetence’, ‘C’onnections’ and ‘C’haracter’ into LIPW programmes. ‘LIPW +3Cs’ will not only train youth to secure jobs after the programme (Competence) but will assist them to establish a network among themselves and other supporting institutions (Connections). Issues of character which encompasses a sense of right and wrong will also be inculcated in the youth to assist them to function effectively in the society (Character).

KEY TERMS:

Labour Intensive Public Work, Youth Development, Social Protection, Project Implementation, Rural-Urban Migration, Poverty, Youth, Ghana Social Opportunity Project, Ghana, Dugouts

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACIMC	Area Council Implementation Management Committee
ACP	Area Council Plan
AfDB	African Development Bank
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CAP	Community Action Plan
CfW	Cash for Work
CfWTEP	Cash for Work Temporary Employment Programme
CIMC	Community Implementation Management Committee
DFR	Department of Feeder Roads
DPCU	District Planning and Coordinating Unit
EPWP	Expanded Public Work Programme
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Basic Education
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GNA	Ghana News Agency
GSOP	Ghana Social Opportunity Project
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
GYEEDA	Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Agency
IFW	Input For Work
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISSER	Institute of Social, Statistical and Economic Research
KTC	Koforidua Training Centre
LAC	Land Allocation Committee
LACE	Liberian Agency for Community Empowerment
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme
LIPW	Labour Intensive Public Work Programme
MASAF PWP	Malawi Social Action Fund Public Work Programme

MGREGA	Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Act
MTDP	Medium Term Development Plan
NCO	National Coordinating Office
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NPSC	National Project Steering Committee
NYEP	Nation Youth Employment Programme
PLA	Participatory Learning for Action
PSNS	Productive Safety Net Scheme
NYETF	National Youth Employment Task Force
NYP	National Youth Policy
PLA	Participatory Learning for Action
PSNS	Productive Safety Net Scheme
PYD	Positive Youth Development
RCC	Regional Coordinating Council
RPCU	Regional Planning and Coordinating Unit
TET	Technical Evaluation Team
TLU	Tropical Livestock Unit
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
VSLA	Village Savings and Loans Association
VUP	Vison 2020 Umerenge Programme
WFF	Work For Food

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background

On December 17, 2010, a 26-year-old man known as Mohamed Bouazizi who lives in a small town in central Tunisia stood in front of a government office and set himself on fire, killing himself. His desperate action ignited a revolutionary movement which has come to be known today as the Arab Spring. Apparently, Mohamed Bouazizi was frustrated by the widespread unemployment and its associated economic hardship. Bouazizi became a model for other young people who are suffering unemployment in the hands of a corrupt government. His death sparked a youth revolution which led to the overthrow of the Tunisian government and subsequently spread to other Arab countries, leading to the overthrow of governments in Egypt, Libya, and Yemen (Ibish, 2012).

According to Mulderig (2013), the contagion of the Arab Spring revolution was largely caused by the realization of youth in Egypt, Libya, Yemen, and elsewhere that their generation was living in an undignified liminal state of pre-adulthood characterized by unemployment and poverty. The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2011) reports that unemployment in the Arab world has been the highest of any region on the globe for many years. For example, 50% of the youth in Yemen were unemployed. The United Arab Emirate which has the lowest youth unemployment rate in the Arab community had 12.1% of its youth without a job.

The Arab Spring has major implications for countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. This is because the circumstances that led to the revolution in the Arab world are faced by African people right now.

The African Development Bank (AfDB, 2012) reports that Sub-Saharan Africa has the youngest

population in the world with about 200 million people between the ages of 15 to 24. This youthful population is projected to double in 2045, resulting in what has been termed as the “youth bulge” (McKinsey Global Institute 2010). Unfortunately, government efforts in reducing unemployment has not been proportionate to the increasing youth population, and mostly have been biased toward the adults. The ILO (2013) reported that, between 2000 and 2008, governments in Sub-Saharan Africa created a total of 73 million jobs. Out of this, only 16 million were created for the youth. As a result, many young people in Africa are trapped in unemployment or, more frequently, underemployed in informal sectors with low productivity and wages. According to the ILO (2013), youth within the ages of 15 to 24 who are unemployed constitute about 12.8% of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa. Also 32% of the youth in the region are underemployed.

The situation in Ghana is not very different. According to Baa-Boateng (2018), although Ghana’s growth performance has been quite impressive in recent years, it has not translated into the creation of sufficient jobs for the rapid expansion of the labour force. Baa-Boateng (2018) further argued that, in 2014, about 207,492 jobs were created by the non-household enterprise which fall short of an estimated 519,539 potential net labour market entrants in the same year. Currently, the youth unemployment rate in Ghana stands at 23.1% (ibid, 2018). Compounding the youth unemployment problem in Ghana is the fact that a significant number of the youth, represented by 40.1% are unskilled and are therefore largely excluded from a productive economic and social life (ISSER, 2017).

Recent youth development interventions embraced by several African governments in their bid to solve the youth crisis is the implementation of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programmes which are directed to create employment and reduce poverty among the unskilled

youth. This programme features a method of construction involving a blend of machines and labour, where labour, utilizing hand tools and light plant and equipment, is preferred to the use of heavy machines, in areas of economic and practical viability (DPW 2015: viii). Notable among LIPW programmes in the developing world include the Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP) in South Africa, the Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP) in Rwanda, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) in India and the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) in Ethiopia (Gehrke and Hartwig 2015).

The potential of LIPW programmes in creating employment for the youth, especially those in the unskilled labour category has been demonstrated over the years. During the 1960s and the 70s, LIPW programmes provided employment to millions of food insecure people in drought prone countries. The MGREGA programme in India accounted for 80 million beneficiaries' while the PSNP in Ethiopia engaged over seven million unskilled labour. In present day India, unskilled rural residents are offered a guaranteed 100 days of employment each year (Gehrke and Hartwig 2015: 51, 53).

1.1.2 Brief history of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme

Present day LIPW programmes evolved from the 1834 Poor Law Amendment Act of England (Subbarao et al., 1997). The 1834 Poor Law Amendment Act was promulgated as a new poverty-relief scheme to replace the Poor Law of 1601. With the Poor Law of 1601, relief items were given out to a wide range of people which include able-bodied workers. These items were in the form of physical cash, in-kind grants, and several forms of wage supplements which were given out in the open. This law later faced so many resistance and was accused of assisting lazy people who have deliberately decided not to work. Subsequently, the law was repealed and the New Poor Law was

promulgated. The New Poor Law established large administrative units attached to a central authority and attempted to abolish outdoor relief for the able-bodied. Poverty relief handouts were therefore extended to households who live in a workhouse provided by the community. The workhouses were deliberately maintained in an unpleasant condition making it unattractive to able bodied workers who are capable of securing a better job with better conditions (Besley et al., 1992)

During the nineteenth century, India pioneered LIPW programme by mirroring the New Poverty Law with the introduction of a massive public work programme aimed at providing food to poor people in famine prone communities (Subbarao et al., 1997:69). Since then, LIPW programmes have been used in developing countries to respond to both developmental and emergency crises. In recent times, major development partners like the World Bank and the World Food Programme (WFP) have embraced LIPW programmes as a tool for poverty alleviation and social protection mechanism in developing countries (McCord, 2009:19).

The United States Public Law 480 (PL480) is also credited for shaping LIPW programmes in developing countries. PL480 was enacted partly to offer food aid to developing countries due to the surplus of food in the United States during the post war period. To control inflation in receiving countries, the food surpluses were directed to support projects like LIPW and school feeding programmes. In this way, the surplus food is directly consumed by beneficiaries and had little or no effect on inflation (Wilder, 1963:14).

1.2 Statement of problem

In 2010, the Government of Ghana launched its version of LIPW programme through the Ghana Social Opportunities Project (GSOP). It earmarked \$56 million for the execution of the programme

in 60 relatively poor districts in Ghana. The programme is directed to offer jobs and income earning opportunities to some identified rural poor, especially the youth, during the seasonal labour demand shortfalls through the rehabilitation and maintenance of public or community infrastructure like roads and dams. The objective is to reduce rural youth unemployment while rehabilitating productive infrastructure assets, which have the potential to generate secondary employment in the targeted districts and cushion households and communities against external shocks (MLGRD, 2010).

Studies on the GSOP LIPW programme has been scanty. A study conducted by Namara, Essilfie and Dadzie (2018) demonstrated that the GSOP LIPW programme is capable of reducing youth unemployment. However, there is no study that addresses the programmes objective of reducing poverty among the youth. The challenges facing the project implementation have not also been properly documented. It is therefore important to investigate whether the objectives set for the programme are being achieved. Challenges of the programme from stakeholders' perspective need to be documented to inform future decisions. Moreover, there has been some report that the GSOP LIPW programme is capable of reducing rural urban migration, particularly youth from the northern part of Ghana to the south (Amoah and Eshun, 2013). To ascertain the effectiveness or otherwise of this assertion, there is the need for some empirical investigation into the programme. Therefore, the focus of this research was to examine empirically how the LIPW programme of the GSOP is contributing to the advancement of the unskilled rural youth.

1.3 Research questions

The main research question is: how is the GSOP LIPW programme contributing to youth development in Ghana? The sub research questions are;

1. How is the GSOP LIPW programme implemented?
2. What are the challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme?
3. What is the impact of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out migration?
4. How has the GSOP LIPW programme contributed to the reduction of poverty among youth?
5. How can the GSOP LIPW programme be improved?

1.4 Research objectives

The objectives of the study are;

1. To give a detailed description of the implementation of the GSOP LIPW programme
2. To examine the challenges facing the GSOP LIPW programme
3. To determine whether the GSOP LIPW programme has reduce youth out migration
4. To assess how the GSOP LIPW has contributed to the reduction of youth poverty
5. To make recommendations for the improvement of the GSOP LIPW programme

1.5 Demographic characteristics of Ghana youth

Youth has been defined variously by different cultures and institutions depending on the approach adopted in addressing youth issues. Generally, youth is best understood as the period of transition from dependence in childhood to independence in adulthood (GSS, 2015:66). It is at this stage in life that the individual becomes active and fully recognized as a responsible member of the society. Most often, age has been the major distinguishing factor in defining youth. The United Nations defines youth as those people between the ages of fifteen (15) to twenty-four (24) (ibid, 2015). In Ghana, youth has been defined by the government as the age cohort between fifteen (15) and thirty-five (35) years (MOYS, 2010:5). It is instructive to note that the African Union also uses the same definition as used by Ghana.

1.5.1 Regional Distribution of Youth in Ghana

The Ghana Statistical Service reports that 35.9% of Ghana's population of 27,669,000 are within the age cohort of 15 to 35. This implies that the youth population of Ghana stands at 9,933,171 (GSS, 2015). This number is spread over all ten regions with varying concentration. The youth population is concentrated in four regions in Ghana, namely, Ashanti (20.2%), Greater Accra (17.9), Eastern (11.4) and Western (11.0). The Upper East (3.5%) and the Upper West (2.2%) regions located in the northern part of Ghana have the least concentration of youth. Also 55.6% of them live in urban areas while 44.4% reside in rural areas (GSS, 2015).

1.5.2 Educational characteristics of youth in Ghana

The GSS (2015) reports that 40.1% of youth in Ghana have no form of education. Among this number, more than half representing 57.0% reside in rural areas while 26.3% live in urban towns. Also 29.9% of youth have basic education with 20.4% and 3.8% attaining secondary and tertiary education respectively.

These figures are disturbing because it portrays a large population of youth in the unskilled labour category who most often find it difficult to secure employment. The high rate of uneducated youth has been attributed to widespread poverty. In a study conducted by Lewin and Akyeampong (2009) in Sub-Saharan Africa, it was revealed that wealth as indicated by household income is a powerful predictor for enrolling people in schools. They further cited high incidence of poverty in rural Ghana as the major cause of inequality of educational attainment between rural and urban youth.

However, the Ministry of Education in Ghana has reported a consistent increase in school enrollment as a result of the Free Compulsory Basic Education (FCUBE) policy. It is reported that enrollment has been increasing by 7.4%, 5.5% and 8.0% in kindergarten, primary and junior high

respectively (MoE, 2015). Government expenditure allocated to education has also been increasing. In 2014, nearly GH¢ 6.3 billion was spent on education representing a 10.4% increase over 2013. Government expenditure on education has been hovering around 6% to 7% of GDP (MoE, 2015).

Although enrolment rates have been increasing, there is a worrying trend of increasing school drop-outs. At the primary school level, the country is accomplishing around 95% of enrolment. At the Junior High School (JHS) level, the rate drops to around 78% and 12% at the tertiary level (MoE, 2013). According to Akyeampong et al (2012), school dropout is mostly influenced by poor attendance and performance, illiterate parents and high schooling cost. Moreover, Adams et al (2016) cited child labour, marriage and teenage pregnancy as factors contributing to high school drop-out in Ghana.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study contributes to the literature on the application of labour intensive techniques in the construction of community infrastructure in Ghana. As mentioned earlier, the literature on labour intensive public work programmes are scanty. This will serve as a reference point for researchers interested in public work programmes.

The study provided a detailed description of the project design and its implementation. In doing this, design and implementation gaps were identified which can be addressed by programme designers to improve the project performance. Challenges confronting the project were also examined from both project implementers and beneficiaries' perspective. This will set the platform for an interactive feedback between project implementers and project beneficiaries for the smooth implementation of future LIPW programmes.

The study also determined the effectiveness of using labour intensive methods to solve youth unemployment problems. The result of this study serves as a tool for self-evaluation by policy makers, and as a result, make informed decisions on sustainable ways of addressing youth unemployment challenges in Ghana.

1.7 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is in nine chapters.

Chapter One: Orientation

This chapter begins with the introduction and background to the study. It presents the problem statement as well as research questions and objectives. The significance of the study is also discussed. The chapter goes ahead to briefly discuss the demographic characteristics of youth in Ghana.

Chapter Two: Literature review

Chapter two is a review of literature on the concept of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programmes. It discusses the definition as well as objectives of the programme. Targeting techniques employed in public work programmes are also discussed. In addition, the chapter gives an overview of LIPW programmes implemented in some developing countries. Finally, the chapter discusses Ghana's National Youth Policy and other youth development initiatives embarked upon by the state.

Chapter Three: Theoretical framework

This chapter discusses the major theories used to address the research questions. Firstly, Najams 5Cs protocol of policy implementation is reviewed in order to provide a lens through which the implementation of the Ghana LIPW programme can be analyzed. Other theories also selected and reviewed include; Positive Youth Development (PYD) model, the individualistic theory of

poverty, neoclassical migration theory, modernization theory, dependency theory, neoliberal theory and basic need development theory.

Chapter Four: Methodology

Chapter four is a presentation of the research design and methodology employed in the study. The population, sampling and sampling techniques, data collection instrument, data analysis techniques, and ethical considerations are also presented.

Chapter Five: Design and implementation process of the GSOP Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme

This chapter gives a detailed description of the GSOP LIPW programme. It identifies the institutional arrangement of the programme, and the processes involved in preparation of the project for implementation. Payment arrangements for beneficiaries are also discussed. Finally the chapter discusses some challenges facing the project from implementers' perspective.

Chapter Six: Beneficiary assessment of the implementation of the GSOP Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme in the Upper West Region of Ghana.

Most often, the views of beneficiaries of government interventions are not heard by programme implementers. This chapter identifies the challenges facing the GSOP LIPW programme from beneficiaries' perspective in order to provide interactive feedback with project implementers.

Chapter Seven: Impact of the GSOP Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme on youth out migration in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District

Chapter seven empirically examined the effect of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out migration. Challenges facing the youth with regard to the usage of the infrastructure provided by the programme are also discussed. The chapter ends by identifying homegrown solutions to address the problems of the youth.

Chapter Eight: Reducing poverty among youth with Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme: Evidence from the Daffiama Bussie Issa District in Ghana

This chapter compared beneficiaries of the project and non-beneficiaries in order to identify whether the programme has reduced poverty among the youth.

Chapter Nine: Summary and conclusion

This chapter summarizes all the findings and makes practical recommendations for the improvement of the Ghana LIPW programme.

1.8 Summary of chapter

In conclusion, this chapter provided a background information on youth unemployment, statement of problem, research questions and objectives. It also mentioned the importance of embarking on this kind of research. It concluded by giving a brief outline of the chapters in this thesis. The next chapter is a literature review discussing the concept of labour intensive public works and other youth development initiatives previously embarked upon by the Government of Ghana.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a detailed description of the concept of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) Programme. It also discusses the methods employed by designers of LIPW in selecting beneficiaries of the programme. Some experiences from selected African countries who have implemented LIPW are also discussed. The chapter finally discusses the Ghana National Youth Policy and identifies some contributing factors to youth unemployment in Ghana and the effects it has on the Ghanaian youth.

2.2 Defining Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme

‘Labour intensive’ is an economic term that depicts a kind of production in which labour is the predominant factor. Bentall, Beusch and Veen (1999: 219) defines labour-intensive methods as a technique where labour is the key resource for performing a project, and where the portion of the total project cost spent on labour is high, usually 25 to 60%. McCutcheon (2008: 4) solidified the definition by distinguishing it from ‘labour extensive’. He explained that labour intensive “is not the use of a large number of people on relatively unplanned emergency or relief projects to construct something of ill-defined quality and value”. To him, such will be termed as ‘labour extensive’. The South Africa EPWP defines LIPW as a method of construction involving a blend of machines and labour, where labour, utilizing hand tools and light plant and equipment, is preferred to the use of heavy machines, in areas of economic and practical viability (DPW 2015:

viii). In summary, key words like “sustainability”, “cost effectiveness” and “quality” are fundamental components of LIPW.

On her part, McCord (2009:16) operationalized LIPW programme as all activities which involve the payment of a wage either in cash or in kind by the government, or by a representative acting on behalf of the government, in return for the provision of labour, in order to i) enhance employment and ii) produce an asset (either physical or social), with the overall objective of promoting the social welfare of citizens. She explained that, LIPW programme comes in different forms. Those that offer food as a form of compensation for the physical labour are known as Work-For-Food (WFF) whilst those that offer cash are also known as Cash-for-Work (CfW) programmes. The choice of food or cash as a mode of payment normally depends on the kind of factors that dictate the shock a community experiences. McCord (2009) further elaborated that, in situations where food is readily available and food inflation is on the increase, food is preferred as a mode of compensation for beneficiaries. Programmes which typically offer compensation in the form of food are mostly supported by agencies like the World Food Programme (WFP) and the USAID, which are historically known to have excess food at their disposal but limited cash to fund CfW programmes (McCord 2009:17). There also exists an alternative form of LIPW programme where agricultural inputs are offered as a mode of compensation known as Input-for-Work (IfW). The essence here is to provide inputs like fertilizer that has the potential to increase farm productivity and reduce food insecurity (ibid, 2009).

2.3 Objectives and Approaches of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) Programmes

According to Subbarao et al. (2013: 3), LIPW programmes have two main objectives; one is the quick generation of employment to the poor unskilled labour, and the second is to provide and

maintain infrastructure in order to promote community development. In recent times, LIPW has assumed a social protection dimension. Poverty, inequality, climate change and disaster related shocks have driven policy makers to institute LIPW programmes as a safety net in providing income for the poor people and ensuring that they have adequate food that can sustain them (ibid, 2013). A new dimension of LIPW programme which is gaining more prominence in Africa is its objective toward skill development. This is necessitated by the notion that, the huge rate of youth unemployment in Africa is attributed to the lack of skill that is required by today's economy (ibid, 2013).

Two different approaches to LIPW has also been identified. They are the safety net approach and the infrastructure approach (Subbarao et al, 2013: 5). Programmes with the safety net orientation are designed to offer income in the form of cash transfer or food to vulnerable households who are desperately in need of income. Although assets are created, the focus is on the safety of the households by ensuring that they have smooth consumption. Programmes under the infrastructure approach focus on the creation of assets for socio-economic development whilst creating a number of employment as dictated by the chosen physical assets and the technology that is adopted. This approach is also targeted at improving the skills of project beneficiaries in order to increase their chances of getting employed in a permanent job.

2.4 Models of Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programmes

Subbarao, et al. (2013: 24) proposed three models for LIPW programme under the safety net approach. They are; short term safety net, long term safety net and public work plus. The short term safety net is directed at mitigating covariate shocks. Covariate shocks are explained by Subbarao, et al. (2013: 27) as unforeseen or uncertain events that affect many or more members in

a community. Examples may include natural disasters and macro-economic crises. This model is short term in the sense that the programme expires after the immediate effect of the uncertain event has been mitigated. Due to the shorter nature of this model, it is highly unlikely that participants will be moved out of poverty. Short term safety net programmes are often implemented in Southern Asian countries in response to climatic shocks, and in Africa as a response to the seasonal food shortage and underemployment which occurs during the yearly 'hungry season', prior to the main farm harvest. A typical example of this model is the Cash for Work Temporary Employment Project (CfWTEP) in Liberia. According to Gehrke and Hartwig (2015: 56), the programme was initiated by the World Bank and the government of Liberia as a safety net programme to respond to the effect of the food crisis that rocked the country in 2007-2008. In total, 680,000 days of temporary employment were created and 17,000 vulnerable households which represent 2.5% of Liberian households were engaged.

The longer-term safety net model is intended to provide a bolster, and it is mainly used as a poverty alleviation tool. It provides a reliable source of employment and income for people experiencing idiosyncratic shocks like sickness and loss of job (Subbarao et al., 2013: 27). In this regard, public work serves as a last resort for the destitute. The Rwandan Vision 2020 Umurenge Program (VUP) was designed with this model in perspective. The VUP was initiated by the Rwandan government in 2008 as part of a three flagship programme of its Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS I 2008-2013, and EDPRS II 2013-2018). India has been very innovative with this long-term safety net approach by qualifying it as a right. This is evident in the promulgation of the Mahatma Gandhi Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGREGA) in 2005. According to Desai et al. (2015:1), the MGREGA is targeted at enhancing livelihood security for people above 18 years

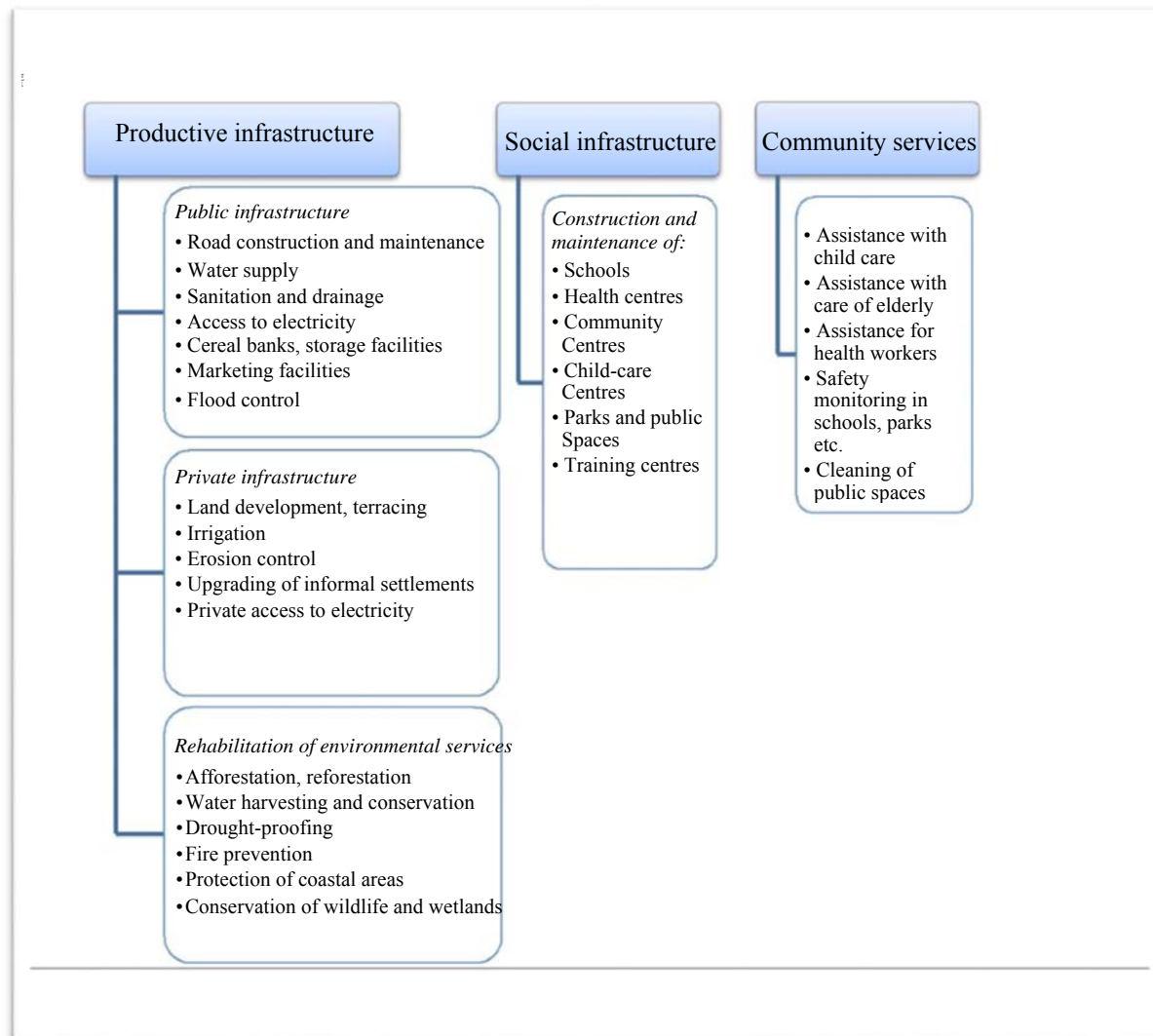
who are willing to perform unskilled manual work in rural areas. It becomes a right because any household is entitled to 100 days of employment in a year at the prevailing minimum wage.

The third model subscribes to the principle of ‘teaching a man how to fish instead of always feeding him with fish’. Capacity building is a key component. Subbarao et al. (2013) called it ‘public work plus’. Aside from the provision of employment and infrastructure through public work, it also serves as a vehicle to lift beneficiaries out of poverty by encouraging them to save part of their wages, or by taking them through a training component to upgrade their skills. A higher proportion of project budget in this model is allocated to training and supervision. The Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP) in South Africa qualifies under this model. Gehrke and Hartwig (2015: 65) explained that the EPWP is designed to offer beneficiaries with a modicum of training or apprenticeship, which could enhance their future chances of securing a permanent job. As this third model seems to address the issue of sustainability more than the other two models, it has been criticized by McCord (2003). She argues that there is an opportunity cost to the core objective of job creation when there is a plurality of objectives. She explained that “given additional objectives related to the more diffuse and complex goal of transformation, the primary goal of job creation may be undermined, and the value of the intervention substantially reduced in terms of poverty alleviation and asset creation” (McCord, 2003: 3).

2.5 Activities undertaken in Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programmes

Mostly, LIPW programmes undertake activities ranging from productive infrastructure, social infrastructure and community services. Gehrke and Hartwig (2015:17) designed the figure below to elaborate more on the kind of activities LIPW programmes engage in.

Figure 2.1: Labour Intensive Public work activities



Source: Gehrke and Hartwig, 2015

2.6 Targeting of beneficiaries for Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programme

LIPW programmes are aimed at reducing poverty and creating employment. How then do we identify the poor people and the unemployed? Most governments in developing countries have resource constraints and work within a limited budget. This calls for effective and efficient allocation of resources in order to reduce wastage. Will it be impactful to spread the limited budget allocated to social protection among all poor people or share among the poorest of the poor?

Devereux et al. (2015:7) defines targeting as “any mechanism for identifying eligible individuals and screening out the ineligible from a population, for purposes of transferring resources such as social grants or preferential access to social services”. Several methods of targeting are used in public work programmes. The most commonly used are, self-selection, geographic targeting and community based targeting.

2.6.1 Self-selection

Self-selection is a design strategy to prevent non-poor people from participating in LIPW programmes. Instead of relying on administrators to do the selection, beneficiaries are allowed to select themselves. To achieve this, wages are deliberately set below the minimum wage to discourage those who can have access to better wages in other sectors from joining the programme (Subbarao et al. 2013; Devereux et al 2015). Other common features adopted by programme designers to ensure self-selection are low quality of subsidized foodstuff in projects where foodstuffs are used as rewards; and queuing for a longer time under difficult circumstances to get selected (Barrett and Clay, 2003). All these are done to frustrate the well to do from participating. However, Devereux et al. (2015) suggested that where poverty is widespread and employment opportunities are limited, potential beneficiaries are mostly higher than the anticipated number of beneficiaries. In this situation, programme designers rely on rationing by reducing the number of day's work per individual, in order to cover more potential beneficiaries. The problem that mostly arrives with this situation is that it becomes very difficult to control errors of inclusion (identifying non-poor people and enrolling them on the programme) and errors of exclusion (identifying poor persons as non-poor and subsequently denying them participation in the programme) (Coady et al., 2004). It is also argued that there is no certainty that low wages will deter the non-poor from

seeking LIPW programmes, or that a low wage will pull in poor people. McCord (2005) explains that given the high rate of uncertainty in the labour market and the general economic hardship in developing countries, non-poor family units may participate in low wage public work programmes to supplement their existing wages. On the other hand, Sampson et al. (2006) also mentioned that, it is not always the case that poor families will troop to seek employment in LIPW programmes when wages are deliberately set low. They explained that poor families without any reliable source of employment may view low wages unattractive, given the high cost of neglecting to do their basic household and subsistence activities.

2.6.2 Geographic targeting

Geographic targeting is premised on the fact that poverty can be concentrated in a particular location or place of residence. This is induced by factors such as agro-climatic conditions, endowments of natural resources, the distance to a sea outlet or centres of commerce, and biases in government policies (Bigman and Fofack, 2000:129). In this regard, areas that are disadvantaged by the above factors are prioritized for poverty reduction intervention. This is effectively done by using a poverty map. A poverty map provides a detailed description of the spatial distribution of poverty and inequality within a country, by using household data and census data with the aim of estimating welfare indicators for specific geographic areas (Hentschel et al., 2000). Geographic targeting has been touted to be relatively low cost and administratively simple by Domelen (2007). He explained that in most instances, a program can use an existing national poverty map, so that the marginal cost of identifying poor regions or districts is in effect zero. He further indicated that, using a poverty map will bring about transparency and reduce political interference due to the unbiased criteria in distributing resources.

However, there is a higher chance that geographic targeting can induce inefficient and distortionary migration. This is more likely in situations where the cost of migrating to prioritized regions for public work intervention is less than the income derived from the public work programme (Watkins, 2008). In this case, people may move from one geographic location to a location of public work intervention. Another challenge facing geographic targeting is that countries may lack reliable and timely data. In countries facing covariate shocks like natural disasters or civil conflicts where assets have been destroyed and population displaced, it becomes difficult to get sufficient disaggregated data of value as a poverty predictor (Domelen, 2007).

2.6.3 Community based targeting

Community based targeting on the other hand is the process of delegating the responsibility of selecting beneficiaries of social intervention programmes to community groups or an intermediary agent in the community. This strategy is informed by the concept that community involvement can lead to improved project performance and better targeting (Subbarao et al. 1997). According to Conning and Kevane (2002), community groups are more likely to have adequate information on individuals, and this turn to be a disincentive to community members in providing false information on assets, income or shocks to justify their inclusion in the programme. Conning and Kavane (2002) further indicated that local criteria for defining poverty are mostly adopted in order to ensure that the selected beneficiaries are accepted by the entire community. However, Alatas et al. (2012) posits that while community targeting allows for the use of better local information, there is a higher possibility that targeting decisions may be based on factors beyond poverty as defined by the government. They contend that, while the central government typically evaluates households based on consumption, the utility function used by local communities may include

other factors, such as a household's earning potential, non-income dimensions of poverty, or its number of dependents.

Another key challenge to community based targeting is the problem of elite capture. This is a situation where social interventions that are allocated for the benefit of the larger community, are appropriated or hijacked by a few individuals of superior status in the community. This normally happens when there is deficiency in the flow of information and inefficient regulations guiding programme implementation (Alatas et al., 2013). The cost is that the welfare benefit will be jeopardized and a large section of the community will receive reduced access to public goods.

2.7 Wages for Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) programmes

Setting the wage rate for public work programmes calls for a careful analysis. This is because, in the event that wages are set too low beyond the minimum wage rate for unskilled laborers, it will derail the social protection objective of ensuring adequate consumption for the poor and reducing the burden of poverty. If the wage rate is also set too high above the minimum wage for unskilled laborers, the public work program will probably lose focus by attracting the non-poor, which in turn, will reduce the total number of poor people who will benefit from the programme. It is therefore prudent to set the wage rate sufficiently below the unskilled labour minimum wage rate (Ravillion, 1991). Subbarao (2003) has suggested that involving the community in deciding the appropriate wage for the programme will be a good initiative. In this way, community members will understand the goal of the programme and the reason behind the setting of low wage. He contends that the wage setting process needs to be transparent in order for it to be accepted by the community, donors and the implementing agency.

Wage rate can be determined by the number of hours worked or on a piece rate basis. The liquidity of money makes it more comfortable for LIPW beneficiaries to accept it instead of in kind items like foodstuffs. Subbarao (2003) mentioned that the use of foodstuffs for payment is sometimes problematic. Programme implementers have to deal with transporting foodstuffs on deplorable roads in less developed countries. Storing and preserving food items also come with a huge cost to programme implementers (ibid, 2003).

2.8 Overview of regional experiences with Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) Programmes

Many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and some parts of the developing world in Asia and the Americas have experimented with several forms of LIPW programmes with the sole aim of creating employment for the unemployed masses. This section will discuss some recent country specific programmes in Africa.

2.8.1 Cash for Work Temporary Employment Programme (CfWTEP)-Liberia

Liberia in collaboration with the World Bank initiated a LIPW programme dubbed Cash for Work Temporary Employment Project (CfWTEP). This was a mitigating measure to address the food crisis that rocked the country in 2007-2008. During that period, 51% of the country's population were considered as having excessively low levels of food consumption, with food taking almost half of household expenditure (Andrew et al., 2012). Poverty was also widespread at the time. Backiny-Yetna et al. (2011a) reports that 68% of the population fall below the poverty line and with 48% below the extreme poverty line. In addition, Liberia had just emerged from a prolonged period of war and instability. The war had killed more than 250,000 out of the 3, 500,000

population (Andrew et al., 2012). Unemployment was also on a record high level of 20% with which a large section were youth without any source of employable income (World Bank, 2010).

This precarious situation had weakened and crippled government agencies' ability to implement effective social protection programmes. This notwithstanding, the government allocated a total budget of 3 million dollars for the project. The Liberian Agency for Community Empowerment (LACE) was tasked with the project implementation. LACE is an autonomous agency setup by an Act of parliament, with the aim of improving the living conditions of poor communities, by providing and strengthening basic social services and promoting community-based approach in project identification, preparation, implementation, administration and maintenance (Andrew et al., 2012: 132). The objectives of the CfWTEP are to help the poor cope with the various shocks by increasing their net income through community level works, and to help build, repair, or maintain local infrastructure (ibid, 2012).

The project engaged 17,000 beneficiaries of which 60% were youth in 34 modules (ibid: 131). Beneficiaries were mostly engaged in rehabilitation of agricultural land in rural areas, and cleaning and clearing roads, drains, and public spaces in urban and rural areas. A combination of targeting mechanisms were used. Geographic targeting approach based on vulnerability criteria was used to determine the number of projects to be assigned to a district. However, the use of a self-targeting approach by setting a wage rate of \$2.50 which was considered to be below the minimum wage of \$3 for unskilled laborers faced a lot of challenges. According to Andrew et al., (2012:137), previous projects engaging unskilled labour had paid \$3 as wage. Community members therefore had the perception that, \$3 was the standard wage rate, but project implementers were bent on

diverting part of the wage for their own selfish gains. Subsequently, the programme adopted \$3 as a wage rate.

The targeting approach was most successful given that 80% of the project beneficiaries were considered as poor. This was the result of a broad sensitization of communities on programme eligibility, and the encouragement of vulnerable people to participate in the programme (ibid, 2012). This programme gained some considerable success. Backiny-Yetna, Wodon and Zampaglione (2011: 7) reported that, an average of 76% of the participants claimed that they have acquired new technical skills that will aid them in securing jobs in the future. They also mentioned that the project assisted only 5% of the project beneficiaries to move above the standard poverty line of one dollar a day in the long run.

2.8.2 Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP)-Rwanda

Rwanda is one of the poorest countries in Africa. It is estimated that 56% of the population live in poverty (Dorothee 2017:77). To reduce the widespread poverty, the government signed on to the World Bank's Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (EDPRS I and EDPRS II, 2008-2013 and 2013-2018 respectively). A component of the poverty reduction strategy was the Vision 2020 Umurenge programme (VUP). The VUP is a social protection programme designed to reduce poverty in Rwanda. This is captured in its vision of “establishing an economy with a local resource base to tap local potentials in wealth creation while remedying local problems”. To achieve this vision, it has adopted a mission of embarking on activities that enhances the optimization of the use of indigenous resources and their translation into socio-economic capital (MLG, 2012:1).

The programme was launched in 2008 in 30 poor districts with each district having one project. Subsequently, the programme was scaled up to benefit 240 districts in 2015, with projects per district also increasing at varying rates (Gehrke and Hartwig, 2015:61). Community based targeting and self-targeting approaches were adopted to enroll beneficiaries on the programme. Participants were engaged in the construction of anti-erosion ditches, ponds, community latrine, feeder roads, bridges and market centres. Initially, beneficiaries were paid \$1 in 2008. This was increased to \$1.3 in 2010 and \$1.6 in 2014. Although the wages were meant to be lower than the prevailing market wage rate for unskilled labour, Gatsinzi (2012) revealed otherwise. He mentioned that 63% of the VUP beneficiaries reported that the wages they received were higher than what they receive when they offer their labour in the open market. Gehrke and Hartwig (2015:61) also reported that, while the project was meant to provide 69 days of work to beneficiaries, it ended up providing between 42 and 48 days of work.

Available information indicates that, from 2008 to 2014, the programme created short term employment to benefit 399,509 households (Gehrke and Hartwig, 2015). In addition to the employment generation, Hartwig (2014) reported some other short term gains. Assets belonging to beneficiaries were reported to be higher than non-beneficiaries immediately after the project. Project beneficiaries invested in livestock production and this subsequently increased their livestock holdings as compared to non-beneficiaries. However, this was not sustainable in the long run. Hartwig (2014) further reported that households who benefited from the programme reverted to asset holding similar to what they hold prior to their participation in the programme in the medium term.

Some of the factors that inhibited some households from participating in the program include; long distance from prospective participants' home to project site, difficult nature of the job and the inability of prospective participants to pre-finance two weeks' expenses since beneficiaries were paid after every two weeks (ibid, 2014).

2.8.3 Cash for Work (CfW)-Sierra Leone

The government of Sierra Leone launched its version of LIPW programme dubbed Cash for Work Programme (CfW), under its Youth Employment Support Project (YESP) in 2010, with financial support from the World Bank. The project was implemented by a semi-autonomous body known as the National Commission for Social Action (NaCSA). Widespread poverty and unemployment associated with the global crisis in food prices necessitated the programme (Rosas and Sabarwal 2015:2).

A three-stage process was used to identify beneficiaries of the projects. The first was a geographic targeting approach to select beneficiary communities based on incidence of poverty and its vulnerability to food crises. Second was the submission of requests by communities to receive funding for sub-project. Finally, community based targeting is used to identify individual households as beneficiaries of the project. All these are done with the aid of a Community Oversight Committee (COC) formed by NaCSA to assist in the implementation of the project (ibid, 2015). Beneficiaries were paid \$1.8 as a wage rate for 8 hours of work. This wage is deliberately set below the average market wage rate for unskilled labour to prevent the non-poor from participating. The average duration of work was also between 50 and 75 days. On the average, 60% of the total project funds was spent on labour (ibid, 2015).

By 2015, 45,900 beneficiaries within the ages of 15 to 35 years had been engaged. Sub-projects under the programme include; feeder road rehabilitation and maintenance, environmental mitigation, and cereal cultivation. An evaluation conducted by Rosas and Sabarwal (2015: 11, 15) revealed several short term gains. Household income was reported to have risen by 26%. Beneficiaries were reported to be four times more likely to set up new business ventures as compared to non programme beneficiaries. Communities under the project were also reported to receive a lot of migrants from nearby communities as a result of the new economic activity which serves as a pull factor for migrant labour (Rosas and Sabarwal, 2015).

2.8.4 Emergency Youth Employment and Skill Development-Cote D'ivoire

The electoral dispute in Cote D'ivoire, and the subsequent agitation by the youth, prompted the government to institute a LIPW programme in 2012, as part of the Cote D'ivoire Emergency Youth Employment and Skill Development (PEJEDEC) programme. PEJEDEC was funded by the World Bank with a total budget of \$95 million. The programme has three components which include; temporary employment opportunities, skill development and support, and the strengthening of institutional capacity (IPA, 2017).

The target population were the unskilled youth between the ages of 18 to 30 of which at least 30% were to be women. Public lotteries were used as a targeting mechanism to select beneficiaries from each locality. Prior to the lottery, an intensive community campaign was staged in each community for a period of one month to encourage the youth to apply. This resulted in over subscription of the project. The youth were engaged for 6 months of 6 hour per day. Beneficiaries were paid \$5 per day without taking into consideration the prevailing wage rate for unskilled labour. In total, for each \$20 spent on the project, \$9 went to the beneficiaries (ILO, 2015).

This programme had a training component for the beneficiaries who exited. They were trained on basic entrepreneurship, job searching skills and wage employment opportunities. An evaluation by the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2015: 29) indicated that the project increased beneficiary's earnings significantly. It also concluded that there was no likely impact on poverty in the long run. But based on psychometric tests, it was noticed that the beneficiaries were more confident towards the future.

2.8.5 Expanded Public Work Programme(EPWP)-South Africa

Rising unemployment and poverty in South Africa necessitated the creation of the Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP) in 2004. It is reported that about 26% of the South African population are unemployed (STATS, 2017). The objective of the EPWP is in several folds. It seeks to provide employment opportunities by injecting funds into the local economy in the form of wages to local poor and unemployed people. It also seeks to develop labour intensive capacity in the construction sector by promoting skill development of employee's while building cost effective and quality assets (DPW, 2015:1). The programme is targeted at creating between 100,000 and 200,000 short term jobs each year. To achieve this number of employment, four main sectors of the economy were identified to venture and they include; infrastructure projects, environmental related projects, social programmes and community development projects (McCord, 2009). The Department of Public Work was tasked to spearhead its implementation by providing effective coordination, monitoring and evaluation (ibid, 2009).

The programme has specific criteria for enlisting beneficiaries. Fifty five percent of programme beneficiaries were to be youth within the ages of 16 to 35 years. In addition, fifty five percent were also to be women while two percent were allocated for the physically challenged (DPW, 2015:

viii). Community based targeting and self-targeting approaches were used in different communities. But an assessment by McCord (2009: 200) revealed that the targeting mechanism adopted by the programme was not very efficient. She reports that about 15% of the beneficiaries on the payment register were not known by the community members, indicating that there were migrant labour enrolled on the programme.

In its first phase of implementation, the set target of creating one million jobs in 5 years was achieved ahead of time. Achieving this target was remarkable, but McCord (2005:580) contends that this had an insignificant impact on unemployment. She argues that most of the beneficiaries of the programme returned back to the unemployment pool after exiting the programme. It only provided a short term relief for the unemployed. She further criticized the programme's objective of graduating people out of poverty by impacting skills on beneficiaries to aid them in future employment. She explained that the South African economy has grown and demands a highly skilled workforce. Meanwhile, the EPWP only impacted low skills which most often are not needed by the labour economy (McCord, 2005: 581).

2.8.6 Productive Safety Net Scheme (PSNS)-Ethiopia

The prolonged drought that occurred in Ethiopia in 2002/2003 brought about extreme hunger and general hardship. Available social protection initiatives like the Food-for-Work (FfW) and the Employment Generation Scheme (EGS) could not even sustain the impact of the drought. The Government in collaboration with development partners then initiated the Productive Safety Net Scheme (PSNS) as a longer term measure to deal with the problem (Zewdu, 2015:5). The objective was to provide cash transfers to poor people in chronically food insecure districts in a manner that prevents asset depletion at the household level and creates assets at the community level.

Beneficiaries are engaged in LIPW during the agricultural off season between January and June each year to achieve this result (Berhane et al., 2017:10). The programme is implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture with a yearly budget of \$500 million which mostly represent about 1% of GDP (Gehrke and Hartwig, 2015:51).

Both geographic and community based targeting approaches are employed to enlist beneficiaries on the programme. Geographic targeting is used to select drought prone districts that are vulnerable to food insecurity. Selecting individual households were left for the community to decide. Poor households with severe food shortage were selected. In doing this, community targeting agents are given some substantial discretionary powers to modify the targeting criteria and also update the beneficiary register annually. This made it possible to add households that suddenly become poor (Berhane et al., 2017:10). However, Sharp et al. (2006) found some little evidence of corruption, bribery and the misuse of PNSP funds. They reported instances where relatives of community targeting agents were given priority in selection onto the programme. They also reported cases where potential beneficiaries were asked to pay a facilitation fee as “bribe” to be included in the beneficiary list. These cases of wrongdoing were in higher scope in districts where there is low awareness of the targeting procedure (ibid, 2006).

The PSNP has been touted to be among the best social protection programmes in Africa. By the use of the Coady et al. (2004) method of assessing targeting, Coll-Black et al. (2012:2) reported that the PSNP has superior targeting in comparison to any of the African safety net programmes. Gehrke and Hartwig (2015:51) also reports that, aside from the EPWP in South Africa, the PSNP is the next largest LIPW programme in sub-saharan Africa with approximately 7 million beneficiaries. Beneficiaries are paid in cash and in kind. 3kg of cereals or \$0.7 were paid as a

reward for a day's work. The wage rate was subsequently increased to \$0.8 and \$0.9 in 2008 and 2010 respectively. The average work days for beneficiaries were 72 days. (Gehrke and Hartwig 2015:51).

The PNSP dramatically reduced food insecurity, Berhane et al. (2015:2) posits that in 2006, 26% of beneficiaries reported food gaps of five months or more. But in 2014 this had fallen to 8%. Diet quality was also reported to have increased by 21% over a 9-year period. Further studies by Debela and Holding (2014:5) on the impact of the PNSP on livestock and children education produces a commendable result. Beneficiary households showed a significantly larger average increase in livestock holding of 2.68-2.69 in the first five year period of the programme. Children within beneficiary households were also reported to have attained a significantly greater level of education than non-beneficiary households over a five year period.

The PNSP was not without challenges, Devereux and Guenther (2007:8) explain that challenges and constraints of the programme include: poor coordination and monitoring, delay in the delivery of resources, high turnover of staff, inadequate assignment of personnel, delay in planning and implementation, poor technical support to fields staff, inadequate supply of tools and equipment, and low level of technical skills of the field staff. As a consequence, most of the assets that were constructed under the PNSP failed to meet minimum technical requirements (ibid, 2007)

2.8.7 The Malawi Social Action Fund Public Work Programme (MASAF PWP)- Malawi

The Malawi Social Action Fund Public Work Programme (MASAF PWP) has been in existence since the 1990s. The documented objectives of the programme are to improve food security and increase the use of fertilizer and other agricultural inputs. To achieve this, short term labour

intensive employment is given to poor people who are able and fit to work (Beegle et al., 2017:2). The programme is being financed by the Government of Malawi in collaboration with the World Bank. Implementation responsibility was given to MASAF, a nonprofit organization reporting to the government. The programme was in two cycles; October to December, and May to July with beneficiaries working a total of 24 days in each cycle (Beegle et al., 2017).

A two-stage targeting approach was used. In the first stage, a pro-poor geographic targeting was used to select beneficiary communities, and in the second stage, a combination of community based targeting and self-selection of households. The programme covers all the 31 districts in Malawi with funding allocations based on population and food security estimates provided by the World Food Programme (WFP) (Beegle et al., 2017:2). In total, 250,000 households per year benefit from the programme with a daily wage rate of \$0.90. Technically, the wages earned from the public work programmes were intended to purchase farm inputs like fertilizers during the farming season to aid production and decrease food insecurity. Beneficiaries were engaged in the construction of feeder roads, classrooms, irrigation facilities and public toilets (Gehrke and Hartwig, 2015:57).

An evaluation by Beegle et al. (2017:33) revealed rather disturbing results. They reported that the MASAF PWP does not have any measurable short term effect on food insecurity. Although the study revealed that households were more likely to receive fertilizer coupons and hence pay less for the fertilizer, there was no evidence that the households applied more fertilizer on their farms.

2.9 The Ghana National Youth Policy (NYP) and youth development interventions by the state

The National Youth Policy is the main framework set by the state to direct youth development interventions in Ghana. The vision of the policy is summed up as empowering youth to impact positively on national development (MOY, 2010). The policy identified unemployment, underemployment and migration as key challenges facing the youth and went ahead to prescribe some policy directives to remedy it (ibid, 2010). Some of the policy directives are;

- Building the capacity of youth to discover wealth-creating opportunities in their backyard and environment
- Creating opportunities for young people to take advantage of available jobs
- Integration of entrepreneurship skills into youth development activities
- Facilitation of access to credit for the youth
- Promotion of the participation of the youth in modern agriculture as a viable career opportunity for the youth and as an economic and business option

Although these policy directives facially look good, the national youth policy has been criticized for not going beyond rhetoric to actually implement the directives to address the youth problem. According to Korboe (2014), the policy does not properly diagnose the structural drivers responsible for perpetuation of youth poverty and inequality. He further mentioned that the policy is not accompanied by a credible action plan, and there has been little decisive implementation so far. The National Youth Authority, the agency responsible for the implementation of the policy has been faulted for not being proactive in ensuring that responsible ministries and agencies effectively implement the policy (ibid, 2014).

Prior to the formulation of the national youth policy in 2010, youth unemployment had already been declared as a national security threat in 2005 (MOYS, 2013:3). The then government established the National Youth Employment Task Force (NYETF) to facilitate the implementation of youth employment initiatives. Subsequently, a National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) was set up. The functions of the NYETF includes designing guidelines for implementing the NYEP; reviewing and approving programmes and projects; securing funds and other resources for NYEP implementation; sensitizing and training managers of the programme at national and district levels, monitoring and evaluating the NYEP; making informed policy recommendation for government consideration and undertaking any other duties assigned to it by the minister responsible for youth employment (GOG, 2006:13).

The NYEP was launched in 2006 with the aim of providing productive employment to youth including Junior and Secondary school leavers, Technical/Vocational School graduates as well as school dropout and illiterate (Attipoe-Fittz, 2010). The programme was designed to engage the beneficiaries for two years and were supposed to exist to further their schooling or look for a permanent job. At the launch of the programme, ten modules were developed (GOG, 2006:3-4). The modules were; youth in information communication technology, youth in agri-business, youth in community protection; youth in trade and vocations; rural education teaching assistants; paid internship and industrial attachment, volunteer services, waste and sanitation management corp, vacation jobs, and community protection system. Attipoe-Fittz (2010) reported that the new government that took office in 2009 added four more models. The new modules that were added include; youth in eco brigade, youth in afforestation, youth in road repairs and maintenance, and youth in film industry.

In 2012, the government renamed NYEP as Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Development Agency (GYEEDA) as part of a rebranding exercise with a new mandate of coordinating all youth employment and entrepreneurship programmes. By the end of 2012, GYEEDA had engaged a total of 472,979 beneficiaries in 34 modules at a total cost of GH¢1,063,956,190 (MOYS, 2013).

Although GYEEDA provided some employment to the youth, Obeng (2011) maintains that its contribution to the fight against unemployment is seen as a drop in the ocean because only a few of the youth are employed under the scheme. Other studies revealed so many challenges of GYEEDA. Korboe (2014) reports that GYEEDA has been poorly managed since its inception. He explained that the lack of coherence and coordination resulted in considerable duplication. The programme was such that a service provider could design any programme that seeks to engage the youth without undergoing any sort of competitive tendering. Contracts between GYEEDA and the service providers were reported as lacking any basic standard element of contract like commencement date and termination date (MOYS, 2013). This created a situation where there can be different service providers operating the same module in the same district, and thereby created an avenue for beneficiaries to abuse the system. There were instances where beneficiaries could enroll on the programme with more than one service provider in the same district. Korboe (2014) further mentioned that several high ranking officials of GYEEDA have been indicted for corruption by flouting most of the procurement regulations. In February 2018, the former Chief Executive Officer of GYEEDA was sentenced to 6 years in prison for causing financial loss to the state (GNA, 2018)

In trying to understand why GYEEDA is plagued with so many challenges, Gyampo (2012) mentioned that the youth were not properly involved in the planning and implementation of the programme. He explained that the youth best know their problems and could best identify better solutions to it. Meanwhile, GYEEDA was formulated by national security officials who are not experts in youth development and did not make any effort to seek expert advice to better formulate the programme. Attipoe-Fittz (2010) also added that the youth had no feeling that the programme belongs to them and this was evident in the lackadaisical attitude they portrayed at work, and their misuse and abuse of office equipment at the various GYEEDA offices.

2.10 Contributing factors to youth unemployment and its effect on the Ghanaian youth

In a study commissioned by the Ghana Ministry of Employment and Labour Relation, five key reasons were attributed to the huge youth unemployment rate in Ghana. First is the introduction of Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary schools to replace the Ordinary Level and the Advance Level system of education. It is argued that this new system did not provide adequate planning for the integration of trade/vocations and job placement. The second reason cited by the commission was that the educational curriculum had no link to the needs of the important sectors of the economy. Also the collapse of the industrial base as a result of the ineffective management of the divestiture process which resulted in the closure of many factories without a structural transformation of the economy to generate alternative jobs for the youth has been cited as a third reason. Fourth is the shrinking of public sector employment opportunities coupled with a relatively slow growth of the private sector. Finally, the lack of a coherent national employment policy and comprehensive strategy to deal with the employment problem is also cited (MMYE, 2006).

The rapid increase of Ghana's youthful population has also been mentioned as compounding the youth unemployment problem. Over the past three decades, Ghana's population has been increasing at a rate of 2.7 per annum. It is believed that this rate of increase put much pressure on Ghana's fixed resources (Poku-Boansi and Afrane, 2011). According to Braimah and King (2006), what is more worrying is the fact that 30% of Ghana's population are below the ages of 10 and will be churned into the labour force very soon. They continued that if appropriate measures are not kept in place, these huge numbers will be a threat to the nation.

Moreover, Government's priority investments have been accused of being biased towards the service sector which employs fewer people. According to Baah-Boateng (2012), Agriculture and the manufacturing sector has a huge potential of employing the youth than the service sector. He further mentioned that although the investment in the service sector has yielded more returns in terms of increase in GDP, the same amount of increase could have been realized with a similar investment in agriculture, and will have an added advantage of employing more of our young people. He therefore recommended that the government refocus on the agriculture sector to save the unemployment situation.

But unfortunately, other studies suggest that the youth themselves lack interest in Agriculture. According to MoFA (2013), the average age of a farmer in Ghana is 55 years. Chikezie et al (2012) also mentioned that the youth who have the physical strength to take up agricultural production, do not believe or have the knowledge that agricultural production can be a profitable venture. In trying to understand why youth have low interest in agriculture, Akpan (2010) revealed that society perceives farming as a poor man's work. Most farmers feel ashamed of their work and encourage

their children to abandon it. He further cited inadequate credit facilities, low farming profit margins and lack of agricultural insurance as militating against youth participation in agriculture.

The effect of youth unemployment has been very huge. Amissah (2016) reports that the duration of unemployment significantly predicted poorer psychological health among youth. Longer duration predicted higher levels of depression, cognitive distortions, and suicidality and lower level of self-esteem and vice versa. He maintains that, as the year runs out, the economic difficulties of the unemployed youth get worse and their psychological problems increase alongside. In the view of Poku-Boansi and Afrane (2011), these frustrations associated with youth unemployment has led many to commit various forms of crime including prostitution, illegal drug trade, teenage pregnancy and disrespect for elders. This has cumulatively resulted to the increase in sex related diseases like HIV/AIDS.

An emerging threat of youth unemployment in recent times has been the exodus of youth into ‘Galamsey’. *Galamsey* is a local term used in describing illegal gold mining in Ghana. Their activities involve the use of simple tools like shovels, pick-axes, pans, brackets, chisels and hammers in prospecting for gold. This activity is highly risky because it is unlicensed and unregulated. Galamsey operators move in groups to rural areas that are alleged to have gold deposits and start digging deep into the soil (Owusu et al., 2012). According to Adjie et al (2012), about 170,000 youth are engaged in this activity nationwide mostly due to lack of employment opportunities.

The effect of this unregulated activity has been enormous. According to FORIG (2017:2-3), the impact of Galamsey has been felt in the environment, water bodies, agriculture, humans and many other sectors. The following bullet points explain the impact as mentioned by FORIC.

Vegetation and wildlife

- Massive destruction of vegetation and water bodies
- Loss of crops such as cocoa and oil palm plantations as well as crop farms.
- Habitat loss for some plant species and wildlife

Environmental pollution

- The release of carbon dioxide and methane from the combustion resulting from illegal mining activities increases the concentration of greenhouse gases (e.g. carbon dioxide, methane) and ultimately contributes to worsening the climate change problem.
- Accumulation of heavy metals in soils and water bodies. Consequently, this can cause a range of health problems including cancers, heart, brain, liver and kidney diseases.

Social implications

- With the influx of miners in these rural areas, a very important indirect social effect is an increase in teenage pregnancy.
- The number of drop-outs from school in illegal mining communities is expected to increase as the mining activities can be a source of instant money.

2.11 Summary of chapter

This chapter gave a description of LIPW. It emphasized that not all activities involving the use of large quantities of labour can be considered as LIPW. Rather, key words like “sustainability”, “cost effectiveness” and “quality” are fundamental components of LIPW projects. The objectives for public work programmes were also discussed. They are meant to create employment and reduce

poverty. In some instances, skill training has been incorporated to develop the capacities of beneficiaries.

The chapter also identified three targeting methods employed in LIPW programmes. Most often, geographic targeting, self-selection and community based targeting approaches are complementary used to ensure proper selection of beneficiaries. The chapter further emphasizes the effectiveness of LIPW programmes in creating employment among youth and other vulnerable people on the African continent. Some challenges identified include; poor coordination and monitoring, delay in the delivery of resources, high turnover of staff, inadequate assignment of personnel, delay in planning and implementation, poor technical support to field staff, inadequate supply of tools and equipment, and low level of technical skills of the field staff.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the major theories used to address the research questions. Firstly, Najam's 5Cs protocol of policy implementation is reviewed in order to provide a lens through which the implementation of the Ghana LIPW programme can be analysed. Other theories also selected and reviewed include; Positive Youth Development (PYD) model, the individualistic theory of poverty, neoclassical migration theory, modernization theory, dependency theory, neoliberal theory and basic need development theory.

3.2 Najam's 5Cs Protocols of implementation

The 5Cs Protocol of implementation was developed by Adil Najam, and published in 1995 in his book entitled 'Learning from the literature on policy implementation: A synthesis perspective'. Najam realized that the literature on policy implementation was saturated with no consensus on a model which could be used to understand how a policy, abstractly conceived, could be realized in the real world. He observed that most studies conducted by earlier scholars on implementation were on top-down and bottom-up approaches to implementation, and were mainly contextualized in the developed world. Najam therefore synthesized the existing literature on implementation to develop his 5Cs Protocol, which he mentioned, fit for both developed and developing countries (Najam, 1995). He concluded that there are 5 common themes that run through the implementation literature and these themes constitute the 5Cs. They are content, context, capacity, commitment,

and client and coalitions. Figure 3.1 demonstrates the 5Cs variables and the interplay between them.

Content

In Najam's view, 'content' means what is set out to do and the method that will be embarked upon to accomplish the goal of a policy. Policy content is in three forms, they are distributive, regulatory or redistributive. According to Lowi (1972), distributive policies are intended to create public goods for the general welfare of citizens and are non-zero sum in character. Regulatory policies on the other hand, specify rules of conduct with sanctions for failure to comply with them, while redistributive policies allocate resources equitably among citizens. Najam (1995:38) adds that the content of a policy is important not only in the means it employs to achieve its ends, but also in its determination of the ends themselves, and in how it chooses the specific means to reach those ends.

The definition of implementation as given by Pressman and Wildavsky (1979: xv) gives an indication of how a good policy content looks like. They define implementation as the process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared toward achieving them. In this sense, a good policy content is supposed to clearly define goals and means to achieve the goals.

Context

The corridor through which policy must travel, or the institutions that are going to undertake the process of implementation is referred to as the context (Najam, 1995). Context becomes necessary in the process of implementation because it is highly unlikely to produce authoritative explanations or accurate predictions in a context-free theory (Berman, 1980:206). To facilitate a meaningful

implementation, Najam (1995:42) identified three tasks concerning institutional context that need to be performed. The tasks are;

- To identify the key institutional actors influencing or being influenced by the process
- To trace the interests and power relationships between and within the relevant institution; and
- To identify the institutional characteristics as influenced by the overarching structures of social, economic, political and legal setting in which they operate

Commitment

For effective implementation of policy, those that are entrusted to seek the realization of policy objectives need to be committed. Najam (1995) cited Warwick (1982:135) as saying that, government may have a very feasible policy and may have the required institutional layout to implement the policy, but if those responsible for carrying out the work are unwilling, little will happen. Najam mentioned that, commitment is not limited to only the street-level bureaucrats but all levels through which a policy passes, from the regime-level, state-level, street-level and all the levels in-between. Furthermore, he stated that commitment will be influenced by all the remaining four variables and it will not be prudent for policy designers and implementers to ignore any other linkages between commitment and the other variables.

Capacity

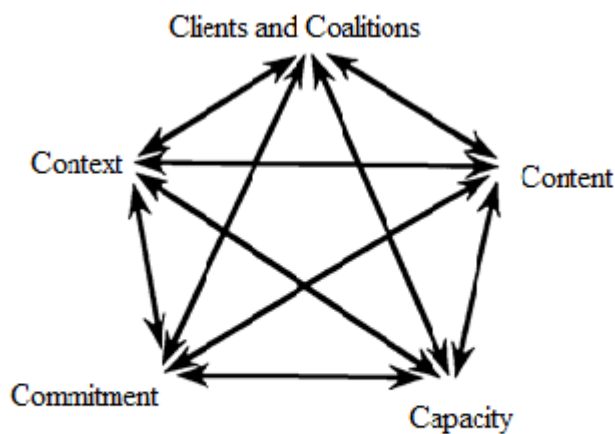
By capacity, Najam (1995) meant the availability and access to tangible resources including human, financial, material, technological and logistical to carry out the desired change that is set in policy. He mentioned that capacity may also include intangible requirements like leadership,

motivation, commitment, willingness, guts, endurance, and other attributes needed to transform rhetoric into action.

Clients and coalition

Clients and coalition refers to those groups or individuals whose interests are enhanced or threatened by the policy and the actions they take in response to the impact of the policy implementation. According to Warwick (1982:163), these groups or individuals can speed up, slow, stop or redirect policy implementation. Najam (1995:52) indicated that, client's interest must be examined because it is the interplay between various actors, their interest, and their strategies that influences ultimate implementation effectiveness.

Figure 3.1: Najam's 5Cs



Source: Najam 1995

Although the 5C Protocol was purposely designed to suit implementation studies in the environmental domain, it can be applied in other fields to explain the success and failure of policy implementation as well as provide effective recommendations for effective implementation (Najam, 1995). Najam further indicated that, rather than placing much emphasis on the variables

themselves, investigators should be interested in identifying the strengths and influences of the variables on an implementation exercise and identify connections between them on the basis of their potential to improve the effectiveness of implementation.

It is instructive to mention that Najam's 5Cs Protocol has been used by a number of researchers to demonstrate its effectiveness. In China, the 5Cs Protocol was used to study the barriers to environmental friendly energy production. The researcher in conclusion stated that the 5Cs enabled the inclusion of contextual elements not addressed in other theoretical frameworks (Buan, 2008). In the United States of America, the 5Cs protocol was also used to analyse the implementation of the US Pollution Prevention Act. Bayrakal (2006) reported that the 5Cs Protocol had been valuable in understanding interactions between the variable clusters in policy implementation. Furthermore, Dongol (2011) employed the 5Cs Protocol to investigate policy implementation gaps in the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora in Nepal.

Najam's 5Cs Protocol as employed in this research assisted in identifying stakeholders involved in the implementation of the GSOP LIPW. This enabled me to effectively target and select appropriate respondents for an interview to get reliable data. It also helped me in identifying the challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme from stakeholder's perspective.

3.3 Positive Youth Development Model

The Inter Agency Working Group on youth programmes define Positive Youth Development (PYD) as an “intentional, pro-social approach that engages youth within their communities, schools, organization, peer groups and families in a manner that is productive and constructive; recognizes, utilizes and enhance young people strengths; and promote positive outcome for young people by providing opportunities, fostering positive relationships, and furnishing the support

needed to build on their leadership strength” (Logwood and Thomas, 2017:2). PYD is a shift from the previous approach where youth development interventions were centred on the negativity associated with youthfulness. This approach to youth development resists conceiving development as a process to overcome the ills and risk in society but instead, it begins with a vision of fully able youth eager to explore the world, gain competence, and acquire the capacity to contribute meaningfully to society (Damon, 2004). Inherent in PYD is the 5Cs model (See Table 3.1) developed to assist youth workers in designing programmes that will ensure holistic development of young people.

Proponents of the 5Cs model theorize that young people whose life contain lower levels of each of the 5Cs would be highly at risk for a developmental path that included personal, social and behavioral problems and risks. They contend that, to develop and strengthen young people, one needs to build on their competence, character, connection, confidence and compassion (Hinson et al 2016). Psychologist Richard Lerner later stated that, young people who have higher levels of the 5Cs have a higher chance of bringing about a 6th C which he termed ‘contribution’. He explained that such an individual will contribute to help himself/herself, his/her family, the community and other aspects of society (Lerner, 2005).

Table 3.1 5Cs of Positive Youth Development (PYD)

“C”	Definition
Competence	Positive view of one’s actions in specific areas, including social, academic, cognitive, health, and vocational. Social competence refers to interpersonal skills (e.g., conflict resolution). Cognitive competence refers to cognitive abilities (e.g., decision making). Academic competence refers to school performance as shown, in part, by school grades, attendance, and test scores. Health competence involves using nutrition, exercise, and rest to keep oneself fit. Vocational competence involves work habits and explorations of career choices. Effective entrepreneurial skills may be one instance of vocational competence.
Confidence	An internal sense of overall positive self-worth and self-efficacy.
Connection	Positive bonds with people and institutions that are reflected in exchanges between the individual and his or her peers, family, school, and community and in which both parties contribute to the relationship.
Character	Respect for societal and cultural norms, possession of standards for correct behaviors, a sense of right and wrong (morality), and integrity.
Compassion	A sense of sympathy and empathy for others.

Source: Lerner et al., 2005.

With these 5Cs, PYD interventions focus on understanding, educating and engaging youth in productive ventures rather than correcting and curing them from unfortunate tendencies or so-called disabilities (Damon, 2004:15).

This model as used in this research provided the lens in analysing how the youth are taking advantage of the LIPW programme to empower themselves and that of their communities. It also assisted in making youth centred recommendations to improve upon the programme.

3.4 Individualistic theory of poverty

This theory contends that the individual is the cause of his or her own precarious situation of poverty. Proponents of this theory argue that hard work and wise choices are rewarding and will enable people to enjoy a decent standard of living (schiller, 1998:3). They regard poor people as lazy people who refuse to engage themselves in productive activities. Other apologists of the individualistic theory of poverty are of the view that individuals are poor because they have a biological defect associated with lower intelligence quotient (Bradshaw, 2006:6). Some too attach a religious connotation to individual poverty. They claim that poor people are like the bible character 'Cain' who was cursed by God. They argue that poor people are meant to suffer because they fail to abide by moral principles embedded in a society's culture (Rainwater, 1970:16).

Neoclassical economists also support individualistic theory of poverty. They contend that individuals seek to maximize their own wellbeing by making choices and investment. One therefore needs to blame him or herself if they choose not to take prudent measures to ensure their future wellbeing and as a result suffer the consequence. An example mostly cited is a situation where someone chooses to forgo college education or other training that will lead to better paying jobs in the future (Schiller, 1998:3).

The neoclassical economist also blames the social welfare systems instituted by governments as responsible for perpetuating individualistic poverty. They argue that the welfare system makes people lazy and reluctant to work because they have hope that the state will always be there to provide for their basic needs. This is best stated in the words of economist Gwartney and McCaleb (1985:7) that, “they (Government) have introduced a perverse incentive structure, one that penalizes self-improvement and protects individuals against the consequences of their own bad choices”. Gwartney and McCaleb (1985) recommend that poverty can be solved if the state institutes stiffer punishment to poor people so that none will choose to be poor. They further mentioned that the social welfare system should be reprogrammed to target only the truly disabled.

Another form of poverty closely associated with individualistic poverty theory is what Oscar Lewis referred to as ‘culture of poverty’ (Lewis, 1966). Oscar Lewis was an American anthropologist and holds the view that poverty is a set of beliefs and values passed from generation to generation. He explained that “Once the culture of poverty has come into existence it tends to perpetuate itself. By the time slum children are six or seven' they have usually absorbed the basic attitudes and values of their subculture. Thereafter they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities that may develop in their lifetime” (Lewis, 1966:21). In this sense, the poor are not blamed as the cause of poverty but regarded as a victim of unfortunate circumstances. Explaining further, Islam (2005:3) states that, the culture of poverty is fostered by factors such as high rate of unemployment and underemployment, low wages, and a high rate of unskilled labour in a cultural setting.

Generally, most people with this culture are noted to have inferiority complexes, feel marginalized and helpless. Most do not own a bank account and do not seek professional healthcare when they

are sick (Black Academy, 2002). Also, Oliviera (2002) contends that people with poverty culture do not participate in community politics. They have an ingrained perception that they are not destined to lead, and that leadership is reserved to the upper class.

Helping people with this subculture calls for a multifaceted approach. Bradshaw (2006:9) identified three different approaches to re-socialize the poor. One is to relocate the poor in a more productive cultural setting that promotes investments and innovations. Second is to focus on the youth by forming youth groups like after school programmes for teens, where their culture is monitored and positive social values are established. Finally is to work within the culture to redefine culturally appropriate strategies to improve their wellbeing. Bradshaw (2006) mentioned local craft cooperatives as an example of initiatives that can tap on the tradition of a culture while promoting entrepreneurship and the setting up of small business that will eventually reduce poverty.

Using this theory, I examined how the youth in LIPW communities define poverty and how they are taking advantage of the infrastructure created in their respective communities to reduce their poverty burden. It also assisted me to understand the challenges that confront the youth in accessing the facility created. This perspective also assisted me to make youth centred recommendations that will improve the GSOP LIPW programme.

3.5 Neoclassical migration theory

This perspective to migration was earlier suggested by Ravenstein (1885) when he postulated his seven laws of migration. He had the view that economic motives are the most paramount in migration decision making. His seven laws of migration were summarized by King (2012:12) as;

- Migrants move mainly over short distances; those going longer distances head for the great centres of industry and commerce.
- Most migration is from agricultural to industrial areas.
- Large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase.
- Migration increases along with the development of industry, commerce and transport.
- Each migration stream produces a counter stream.
- Females are more migratory than males, at least over shorter distances; males are a majority in international migration.
- The major causes of migration are economic.

The neoclassical economist view migration as an individual rational decision of moving from a community of low labour wage rate to a community of higher labour wage rate (Massey et al., 1993:435) The point here is that, individuals are seeking to make the most of their gains and will decide to relocate to urban areas if the gain from migrating will increase his/her income or wage. Factors necessitating the migration from one community to the other are categorized as push and pull factors. The pull factors are positive factors that attract people to a community and may include a higher wage rate, employment opportunities, good weather and better living conditions (Harris and Todaro, 1970: 27). In contrast, the push factors are negative factors that turn to propel people to move from their communities. This also includes unemployment, declining soil fertility, scarcity of land and poverty (ibid, 1970).

The neoclassical theory of migration as employed in this research provided the lens in analysing the research objective of determining the impact of the Ghana LIPW programme on youth out migration.

3.6 Modernization theory

Modernization is defined as “the process of social change, where less developed societies acquire characteristics common to more developed societies” (Lerner, 1972:386). Two historical events after the Second World War prepared the grounds for the emergence of the modernization theory. One is the emergence of the United State of America as a world superpower, and the other is the emergence of new independent states in Africa, Asia and South America. (So, 1990). Chirot (1993) reports that, after the Second World War, major players in world politics in Europe, like the United Kingdom, France and Germany were weakened by the mass destruction of property and human lives. Europe was therefore in search of development support that will assist in its reconstruction process. Similarly, the widespread poverty and deprivation in the new states in Africa, Asia and Latin America required the need for a development model that will push them out of their deprivation.

In modernization theory, two extreme situations are identified. One is a society characterized by modernity and the other characterized by deprivation. Modern societies are highly productive with a higher gross domestic product. People in modern societies are better educated and have a strong social protection system to benefit the vulnerable. According to Smelser (1964), national institutions in modern societies have a clear definition of functions and political roles, and this propels them to enjoy a higher productivity as espoused by the principle of division of labour. On the other hand, the society characterized by deprivation is associated with primitive technology, poverty and diseases (Desai and Potter, 2002:77). Proponents of modernization theory believe that all societies have a desire to attain modernity.

Modernization theory was largely influenced by the work of Rostow (1960). Rostow proposes a model that assumes that development was both linear and uni-directional. In this case, Rostow (1960:4) argued that there are five distinguishable stages of growth:

- Traditional society- where development is stifled with poverty, hunger and sickness on the increase
- Precondition for takeoff – this is the period with improved technology and transportation, increase in trade and investment and the emergence of a centralized Government. This is achieved through investment in education and a higher entrepreneurship drive.
- Take off- this is characterized by rapid economic growth, more sophisticated technology and considerable investment in the manufacturing industry.
- Drive to maturity – this is a period of self-sustaining growth with increasing investment of at least 20% of national income. Technology becomes more classy and there is greater diversification in the industrial and agricultural sector
- Age of high mass consumption- this stage is characterized by sectoral shifts toward consumer durables and service-oriented industry due to high income levels in the society.

In the view of modernization theorists, third world countries like Africa lack productive investment and can only develop when there is a consistent provision of aid in the form of capital, technology and expertise to these countries. It is argued that the process of modernization would eliminate the gap between the richer and poorer countries and produce tendencies toward convergence among societies. Levy (1967: 207) explained that with the passing of time, developing countries and developed countries will increasingly resemble one another because the patterns of modernization are such that, the more highly modernized societies become, the more they resemble one another.

The Marshall Plan in Europe and the Alliance for Progress in Latin America, are examples of programmes which were influenced by modernization theory (McClelland, 1961).

However, the theory of modernization has been criticized severally in the academic arena. The theory has been accused of being ethnocentric. There is some level of skepticism concerning the extent to which past observations relating to Western culture could be used to predict future developments in other cultures. It is therefore argued that development cannot always be unidirectional (Wright, 2005). Proponents of modernization theory most often equate development to westernization, thus the process of copying the institutional arrangement of the West in Third world countries. But in contrast, there is evidence of some countries attaining modernity without passing through the western style. Examples are countries like Taiwan and South Korea who seem to have developed through a strong dictatorship administration (Killing, 1984).

Some critics of modernization also scorn on its principle that traditional values should be eliminated to attain modernity. They indicate that countries in Africa and others in Asia and Latin America do not have the same set of traditional values. These countries have different forms of culture and traditions that set them apart. Moreover, it is also not always correct to say that traditional values and modern values are mutually exclusive. China and Japan as developed countries with modern values still embrace and maintain its traditional values (Radfield, 1965).

This theory was used to understand why there is deprivation in LIPW communities. It assisted in identifying the extent to which cultural values in rural communities can hinder social protection interventions that aim at developing the unskilled rural youth.

3.7 Dependency theory

Dependency theory assumed prominence in the 1960s and 1970s, largely in response to modernization theory and free trade policies. The proponents of dependency theory debunk the modernization theorist obsession that underdevelopment in the periphery was due to certain ingrained cultural characteristics, or their inability to follow specific economic policies that propel a country to move from a stage of deprivation to modernity. Dependency theorists have a common view that the world interrelates as one unit in a capitalist economy rather than a set of separate countries (Wallerstein, 2004). This unit is also made up of different blocks of countries with some being developed and others underdeveloped. They therefore assert that, analysis of why a country occupies a certain position within the global economy should begin at the global level. They argue that development of the core countries came about at the expense of the periphery. The core countries in the north continue to benefit from the extraction of resources from the periphery in the south. Raw materials are purchased cheaply from the south by multi-national corporations in the north, and in turn sell processed commodities at an exorbitant price to the south, thereby subjecting the south to perpetual underdevelopment (YSI, 2017).

The dependency theory draws inspirations from the Marxist theories of imperialism that directs attention to how exploitation of labour in colonial economies decreases the cost of products and as a consequence reduce the cost of reproducing the working class in the developed countries as well as ensuring that the core working class is politically pliable (Larrain, 1989:118). To break this link of core-periphery exploitation that chained the periphery to the world capitalist system, Prebisch (1971) developed a model that sought to create a condition of development within the

peripherals with a particular focus on Latin America. The principal points of the prebisch model are that in order to create condition of development within a country, it is necessary:

- To redirect government emphasis on monetary policy to fiscal policy in order to control monetary exchange rate
- To embark upon import substitution industrialization in order to reduce balance of payment deficit
- To create a platform of investments, giving preferential role to national capitals
- To recognize that the industrial sector is crucial to achieving better levels of national development, especially due to the fact that this sector, in comparison with the agricultural sector, can contribute more value-added to products
- To promote a more effective internal demand in terms of domestic market as a base to reinforce industrialization
- To increase salaries and wages of workers in order to generate larger internal demands which in turn will positively affect aggregate demand in the internal market

The dependency theory has also gotten its share of criticism. Its insistence that the key cause of underdevelopment in the periphery is as a result of gross exploitation by the core and not the domestic factors in the periphery has been challenged. Smith (1979:248) explain that, it is a mistake to assume that “since the whole (in this case the international capitalist system) is greater than the sum of its parts (individual peripheral states), the parts lead no significant existence separate from the whole, but operate simply in functionally specific manners as a result of their place in the greater system”. Smith continued that “dependency theory represents a historically concrete attempt of Marxism to absorb southern nationalism into a kind of ideological united front”.

Critics also argue that it is not always the case that transactions between the core and the periphery are detrimental to the periphery. There are instances where technology has been transferred from the core to benefit the periphery (Harris, 1987). Proponents of dependency theory then need to explain how the remarkable success of industrialization and economic growth in newly industrializing countries like Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore took place if capitalism actually causes underdevelopment in peripheral states. These states in Asia were part of the periphery during the 1950s and the 1960s but came out of poverty and deprivation with Africa still stacked in it (Lipietz, 1988).

3.8 Neo-liberalism

Neo-liberalism is simply the idea that society should be shaped by the free market and that the economy should be deregulated and be privatized. The architects of neo-liberalism argue that, under development is the result of poor allocation of resources due to improper pricing of commodities and too much state intervention by governments in third world countries (Bauer, 1984). The main personalities behind neo-liberalism are Margaret Thatcher of the United Kingdom and Ronald Reagan of the United States. They claim that the liberalization of trade and purging of state controls will stimulate economic growth and enhance efficiency in the market. Successes from the application of free trade in South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan are used as evidence against the failure of countries in Africa due to excessive state involvement in the market (Lal, 1985; Taylor, 1997)

In this sense, the government's role has been reduced to the creation of a conducive environment necessary for the operation of a free market. They suggest that it is the obligation of the state to ensure the quality and integrity of money. It is also required to put up a proper safety and defense

system like the army, police and the legal structures that protect private property rights and the proper functioning of markets. In situations where markets do not exist in areas such as land, water, education, healthcare, social security, or environmental pollution, then the government must create them if necessary (Harvey, 2005:2).

Neo-liberalism was anchored and advocated by the Briton wood institutions. Developing countries were urged to undertake some specified policies to enable them assess funds in the form of loans in these financial institutions. Williamson (2004) summarizes these policy interventions set forth by the Bretton Wood institutions in ten propositions:

- The imposition of fiscal discipline.
- The redirection of public expenditure priorities towards other fields.
- The introduction of tax reforms that would lower marginal rates and broaden the tax base.
- The liberalization of the interest rate.
- A competitive exchange rate.
- The liberalization of the trade
- The liberalization of inflows of foreign direct investment.
- The privatization of state-owned economic enterprises.
- The deregulation of economic activities.
- The creation of a secure environment for property rights.

Proponents of dependency theory have accused the neo-liberals and the Bretton Wood institutions for strengthening the bond of exploitation of the periphery by the core, through unequal exchanges with huge debts on the neck of the periphery leading to a vicious cycle of repayment and external trade difficulties. This happens because the leverage that the Bretton Wood institutions use to achieve compliance from the indebted third world countries include suspending future loans until

appropriate policy prescriptions are adhered to (Rapley, 2002). This claim by the dependency theorist has been refuted by the Bretton Wood Institutions. They claim that they cannot be held responsible for the precarious situation that most third world countries that subscribed to their neo-liberal programme find themselves. They argue that only few countries had the courage to fully implement the policy prescriptions put forth (Bhagwati, 2004). Easterly (2001) mentioned that, once the neo-liberal conditions were agreed upon, a complex hide-and-seek game was played between Finance Ministries and the Bretton Wood institutions about how to measure structural change and re-negotiate programme conditionalities.

In recent times, proponents of the neo-liberal development theory have redirected their focus to recognize the need for government action as well as market forces. The Bretton Wood institutions now target programmes that are directed at reducing poverty. The IMF flagship programme now is the Poverty Reduction Strategy Credit (PRSC) while that of the World Bank is Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility Loans (PRGFL). It is through these facilities that LIPW programmes have sprinkled up in the developing countries. World Bank (2015:10) reports that in 2011, the World Bank financed LIPW programmes in 62 countries, this increased to 84 in 2013 and 94 in 2014.

3.9 Basic need approach to development theory

This theory represents the school of thought that postulates that individuals have the intuition of taking actions that will enable them withstand challenging situations in life, and calls for development interventions that empowers the individual to face his or her challenges. The objective of the basic need development theory is to provide opportunities for the physical, mental and social development of the individual (Streeten, 1977: 9). Proponents of basic need theory argue

that the various growth theories had failed to eliminate poverty and inequality. Tripathy (1993:60) attributed the following factors as reasons for the failure of the various growth theories;

- The growth strategies fail to benefit the poor because of uneven distribution of economic opportunities;
- The productivity and incomes of the poor depend on the direct provision of health and education in the first place;
- It may take a long time to increase the incomes of the poor so that they can afford basic needs;
- The poor and illiterate tend not to spend their income wisely;
- Facilities like that of basic services can only be provided publicly; and
- It is difficult to help all the poor in a uniform way in the absence of basic needs provision.

Abraham Maslow's theory of need inspired the Basic need theory. Maslow theorized that needs are ranked from bottom to top in a hierarchical order. He categorized needs as physiological and growth, and mentioned that physiological needs must be satisfied before meeting growth needs (Burger, 2009:193-194). Maslow's theory of needs is shown in the figure below.

Figure 3.2 Maslow theory of needs



- Physiological needs- are needs represented at the bottom of the triangle and has to do with the survival of the individual. Examples of such needs are, hunger, sex, thirst and shelter.
- Safety needs- occupies the second level of needs. They are met after physiological needs are satisfied. They involve the need to feel secured and out of danger.
- Love/belonging or social needs- the need to belong, affiliate with others, to love, to be loved and accepted.
- Self-esteem needs- the need to achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition, to respect others and self. This need makes people feel confident when it is met.
- Self-actualization needs- the need to perfect one's potentials. It involves the need to be good, be fully alive and find meaning in life

Accordingly, Ghai (1980 as cited in Tiparthy 1993:57) gave some indication of government programmes that may qualify as using the basic need development theory. He mentioned that, development programmes should;

- Increase income of poor people to specified levels through creation of employment, redistribution of assets, and initiate measures that increases productivity;
- directly contributes to the achievement of the targets established in respect of core basic needs like nutrition, health, education, housing, and safe drinking water supply;
- increases production of other basic goods and services purchased by low-income groups from, their disposable incomes; and
- Promote decentralization of power, community participation in political decision making, and self-reliance.

A further extension of the basic need development theory is the programme of actions for the United Nation Millennium Development Goals. These are eight development goals that were set

by 189 nations including Ghana over a decade ago. Inherent in it was the target to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, achieve universal primary education, reduce child mortality, and combat HIV/AIDS and malaria (UNDP, 2013).

The application of the basic need theory will provide the lens in observing how the Ghana LIPW programme has impacted on individuals in the study communities.

3.10 Summary of chapter

In this chapter, various theories through which the research questions can be analysed have been discussed. Firstly, Najams 5Cs of policy implementation was discussed. This model provided the lens to holistically investigate how the GSOP LIPW programme is being implemented. Najam's 5Cs which are made up of content, context, capacity, client and coalition, and commitment assisted in identifying respondents for the interview. It also assisted me to design appropriate interview questions for the respondents.

Positive youth development model was also discussed. Inherent in the positive youth development model is also a 5Cs which is made up of competence, character, connection, confidence and compassion. These are attributes when effectively incorporated in youth development programmes, could synergize results. Youth who have higher levels of these five attributes are more likely to contribute to develop themselves and that of their communities. In applying this model, the researcher looked at how the LIPW programme could be modelled around these attributes.

Various theories of development were also discussed. They include, individualistic theory of poverty, neo-classical migration theory, modernization theory, dependency theory, neoliberal theory and basic needs development theory. These theories informed the researcher on possible

reasons why the youth in Ghana are mostly poor. Possible ways of addressing poverty and underdevelopment were also suggested in these theories. The next chapter will deal with the methodology that will be employed to conduct the study based on this theoretical framework.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND STUDY SETTING

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I described in detail the methods I employed in answering the research questions. The chapter will explain the research paradigm, sampling and data analysis tools that I used for the study. Issues of validity and reliability as well as ethical considerations are also discussed.

4.2 Research paradigm

I adopted critical theory as a research paradigm for the study. Critical theory as a philosophy of science, positions itself between positivism and interpretive paradigm. Positivists believe that knowledge already exists and it is the duty of researchers to find them. They perceive that social phenomena can be studied like the natural sciences by the use of observation and measurement (O’Leary, 2004:5; Mertens, 2005:8). Positivism strives for objectivity, measurability, predictability, controllability, patterning, the construction of laws and rules of behaviour, and the ascription of causality (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). Interpretive paradigms on the other hand operate from the view that reality is subjective. They believe that there is no single correct route to knowledge, and that there are no correct or incorrect theories. They contend that facts should be judged by how interesting it is to the researcher as well as those involved in the same area (Willis 1995; Walsham 1993).

However, critical theory regards positivist and interpretivist giving and incomplete account by ignoring the political and ideological context of most social and educational research. Critical theory focuses on critiquing to bring about societal change than merely understanding or

explaining societal phenomenon. In the views of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:26), it seeks to liberate the disempowered, to redress inequality and to promote individual freedoms within a democratic society. Therefore, critical theory seeks to dissect beliefs, values, social structures and its associated problems that are taken for granted by mainstream theories through the encouragement of self-conscious criticism and the development of effective strategies that are geared toward emancipation (Kincheloe and McLaren, 1994: 138-157).

This research tends to rely on critical theory because the study seeks to provide solutions to the problems that afflict youth and the implementation of public work programmes in Ghana. This notwithstanding, I occasionally relied on both positivism and interpretivism to explain some realities concerning the research questions.

4.3 Research approach

I employed the mixed research method as a methodology for the study. The mixed research method is a research field that involves the integration of both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single research project. The key advantage of this mixture of methods is that, it permits a more complete and synergistic utilization of data than either methods individually (Malina et al., 2015). Denzin and Lincoln (2003) posits that qualitative research is naturalistic and opinion based. This implies that it attempts to study and understand phenomena as it occurs in their natural setting. In this regard, it interprets life situations based on the meanings people ascribe to a subject. Myers (2009) also explained that qualitative research is designed to assist researchers understand people, and the social and cultural context within which they live. Quantitative research method on the other hand involves the systematic empirical investigation of observable phenomena through

numeric computations. Johnson and Christensen (2008:34) and Lichtman (2006:7-8) highlighted the differences between qualitative and quantitative research methods as tabulated below;

Table 4.1: Difference between qualitative and quantitative methods

Orientation	Qualitative	Quantitative
Assumption about the world	Multiple realities	A single reality
Purpose	To understand and interpret social interactions	To test hypotheses, look at cause and effect, and make predictions
Type of Data Collected	Words, images, or objects.	Numbers and statistics.
Role of Researcher	Researchers and their biases may be known to participants in the study, also participant characteristics may be known to the researcher	Researcher and their biases are not known to participants in the study, also participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher
Type of Data Analysis	Analysis proceed by extracting themes from evidence and organizing data to present a coherent picture	Analysis proceed by using statistics, tables, charts and discussing how they relate to the hypothesis
Generalizability	Particular or specialized findings that are less generalizable.	Generalizable findings that can be applied to other populations

In spite of the differences in qualitative and quantitative methods, some researchers argue that they could be harnessed together because each brings a set of strengths which could complement the

other where there is deficient. Neuman (2006:14) contends that, “by understanding both approaches, you will know about a range of research and can be used both in complementary ways”.

Generally, the study aims at evaluating the impact of the GSOP labour intensive public work programme on the development of unskilled rural youth in Ghana. In doing so, this evaluation research quantified the impact of the programme on a range of outcome indicators. Qualitative research methods have limited efficacy for rigorous evaluation of such impacts, but they can add context and depth to quantitative survey findings and help to discover impact pathways. However, the study is also required to assess perceptions of both implementers and beneficiaries on programme design and implementation for which qualitative methods were relied upon.

The study is divided into four parts, the first and second parts addressed the first and second objectives which seek to give a detailed description of the implementation of the Ghana LIPW programmes as well as documenting the challenges facing it. In this regard, the study basically used qualitative methods to seek the opinion of project implementers and beneficiaries. Secondary data sources such as the programme implementation manuals and policy documents related to the programme design, planning and implementation were also consulted. The third part addressed the effect of the GSOP LIPW on youth out migration. For this part, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to collect data for the evaluation. Similarly, the fourth part which sought to assess the impact of the programme on youth poverty relied on the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods for evaluation.

4.4.1 Sampling, data collection and analysis methods for part one of the study

The focus of part one of this study was to give a detailed description of the implementation and challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme from implementers' perspective. Purposive sampling was used to select fifteen (15) key project implementers. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling mostly used by researchers to select participants who have special knowledge about a specific field and through whom the most can be learned (Strydom and Deloprt, 2005:202). Participants selected include; one (1) national coordinator, two (2) regional level officials which include a regional coordinator and a regional monitoring and evaluation specialist, three (3) district LIPW focal persons, three (3) LIPW contractors, three (3) client supervisors and three (3) community facilitators.

The method for data collection from the 15 participants was a semi-structured interview. An interview is a major tool mostly used by qualitative researchers. It is an interaction or exchange of views between two or more people, with one, the researcher, trying to obtain information of mutual concern from the other, who is the participants (Gay and Airasian, 2003:224). It is argued that researchers often get a better response by the use of interviews than other data gathering instruments because people usually feel more comfortable talking than writing (Best and Kahn, 1998). Also, the use of interviews enables researchers to obtain detailed information even in situations where few participants are available (Shneiderman and Plaisant, 2005). In line with this, the participants were asked to describe the design and implementation of the GSOP LIPW, the specific roles they played in the implementation process, and the challenges they faced while performing their roles (see appendix A).

As noted by Carlson and McCaslin (2003), analysis of interview data involves a systematic approach for discovering and grouping the views espoused by the interviewee. In this study,

Tesch's approach (in De Vos et al, 1998) was used. Tesch's approach involves eight steps in analysing interview data. The eight steps as explained by De Vos et al (1998:343-344) are listed below;

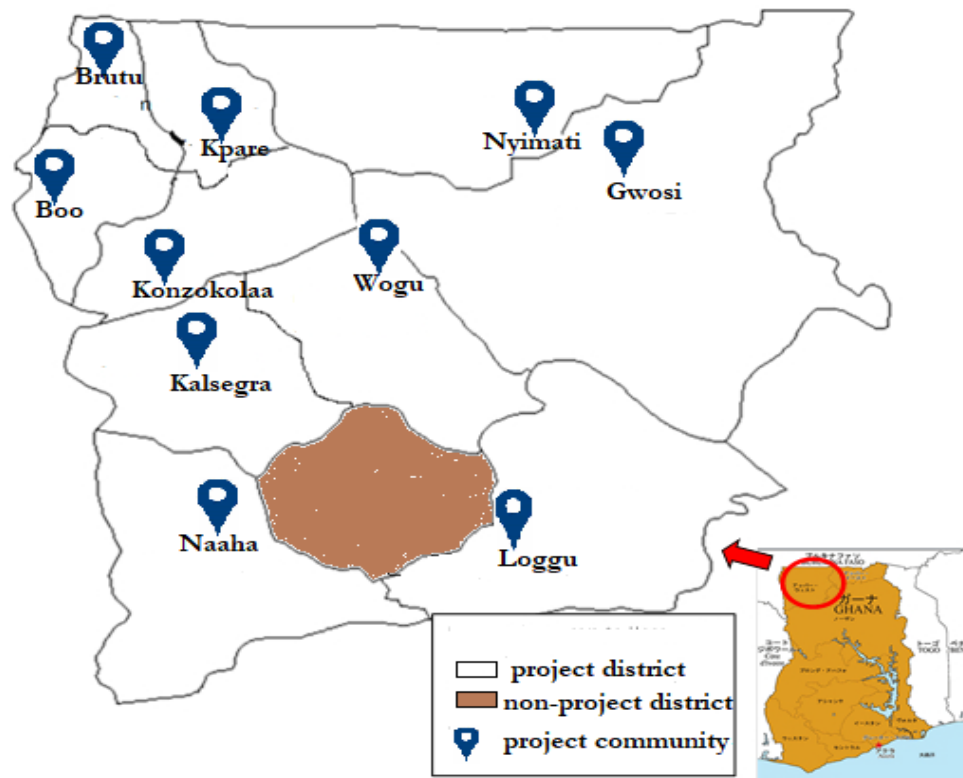
1. The researcher must read through all the transcripts in order to get the sense out of the whole. In doing this ideas must be jotted down as they evolve.
2. The researcher must select one of the transcripts (e.g. the most striking or best interview) and review. While reviewing, the researcher must be guided by this question; "what is this about?", and must think about the underlying meaning in the information. The researcher's thought can be written in the margins of the transcript.
3. The researcher develops a list of all topics from the transcripts and cluster similar topics
4. The researcher applies the list of themes or topics to the data. The themes or topics are abbreviated as codes, which are written next to the appropriate segments of the transcripts. The researcher tries out this preliminary organizing scheme to see whether new categories and codes emerge.
5. The researcher form categories by grouping topics together and determining the relationships between the categories
6. The researcher makes a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and alphabetizes the codes.
7. The data material belonging to each category is assembled and a preliminary analysis is performed.
8. The researcher recode existing material if necessary

4.4.2 Sampling, method of data collection and analysis for part two the of study

The focus of part two of the study was to understand the implementation and challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme from the beneficiaries' perspective. The study was conducted in the Upper West Region of Ghana. The Upper West Region is one of the ten regions in Ghana with 11 administrative districts. According to the 2010 population and housing census, the region has a population of 702,110 people. 48.6% of the population are male while females constitute 51.4%. Also, 83.7% of the residents in the region reside in rural areas while 16.3% live in urban centres. The population is engaged in various economic and social activities including; cultivation of food crops, business/trade and rearing of domestic animals (GSS, 2013).

Among the eleven (11) administrative districts in the region, ten (10) are beneficiaries of the GSOP LIPW programme. The beneficiary districts are Daffiama Bussie Issah, Nadowli-Kaleo, Wa East, Wa West, Sissala East, Sissala West, Lambusie, Nandom, Lawra and Jirapa. In each of the ten (10) districts, simple random sampling was used to select one beneficiary community from the district. The communities are; Loggu, Naaha, Konzokalaa, Boo, Wogu, Brutu, Gwosi, Nyimati, Kalsegra and Kpare. Below is a Map of the Upper West Region showing beneficiary districts of GSOP LIPW, and selected communities for this study.

Figure 4.1: Map of Upper West Region showing GSOP districts and selected communities for the study



A snowball sampling technique was used to select 500 beneficiaries in the Upper West Region. In snowball sampling, researchers identify a small number of individuals who have the characteristics in which they are interested. These people are then used as informants to identify other participants who are qualified to be included in a study (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007: 116). This method was relied upon because several of the participants on the list provided by GSOP secretariat as beneficiaries could not be traced in the communities. In each of the ten (10) communities, fifty (50) beneficiaries were recruited into the study.

In collecting data for the study, three data collection tools were used. They include a questionnaire, focus group discussion and observation.

A questionnaire is a research instrument consisting of printed or written questions in which a subject responds to for the purposes of eliciting their reaction, beliefs and attitudes (McMillan and Shumachar, 2001:40). For this research, staff from the department of Social Welfare and Community Development in the various beneficiary districts in the Upper West Region assisted in administering the questionnaire on the selected participants. The questionnaire (see appendix C) was designed to address the following questions for which the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO, 2013) recommend that any monitoring and evaluation of LIPW programmes addresses;

1. Are the targeted beneficiaries being reached by the public work programme?
2. Do beneficiaries receive adequate information?
3. Is payments received on time?
4. Does the public work accommodate the needs of women?
5. Is payments accurate and easily accessible to beneficiaries?

The researcher used a Likert scale to measure the satisfaction level of beneficiaries with regard to the questions on the questionnaire. Likert scale is a tool developed to measure character, attitude and personality traits (Likert, 1932). The original Likert scale developed by Rensis Likert in 1932 uses a series of questions with five response alternatives: strongly approve (1), approve (2), undecided (3), disapprove (4) and strongly disapprove (5). In applying the Likert scale to measure satisfaction, Clason and Dormody (1994) have suggested that the use of other response alternatives and the deletion of the neutral response is appropriate. Consequently, the researcher changed the

response alternatives to include; very unsatisfied (1), unsatisfied (2), somehow satisfied (3), satisfied (4) and very satisfied (5) as alternative responses to the various questions.

Responses from the questionnaire were inputted into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS is a computer application for managing quantitative data. This software assisted the researcher in drawing frequency tables and pie charts for data analysis and presentation.

Another data collection tool used in this study is Focus Group Discussion (FGD). This is a purposive interaction on a specific topic of interest by a researcher and a group of people with similar background and common interest (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). According to De Vos (1998:324) focus group discussions are helpful in the following ways:

1. Useful in situations where a researcher needs to conduct a study with limited budget and within a shorter period of time.
2. It allows the researcher to probe and create the flexibility that is so important for exploring unanticipated issues.
3. It assists the researcher to develop themes, topics and schedules for subsequent interviews and/or questionnaires.
4. It provides speedy results.
5. It helps in shedding light on little-known phenomena and social processes.

Three FGD were conducted in three different communities to discuss some of the issues arriving from the data collected with the questionnaire. Only three communities were selected for the FGD because of financial constraints. Each Focus group discussion was made up of 12 participants involving 6 females and 6 males who were directly associated with the implementation of the

programme in the communities. The three communities are Loggu, Naaha and Konzokala. In each of the communities, a snowball sampling was relied upon to select the participants of the Focus group discussion.

As a complementary tool to the FGD, the researcher also employed participant observation as a data collection method. In this situation, the researcher and the participants of the FGD in each of the communities visited the site where the LIPW facility is situated to inquire about the state of the asset. By the use of observation, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:398) argue that the “distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations. In this way, the researcher can look directly at what is taking place *in situ* rather than relying on second-hand accounts”.

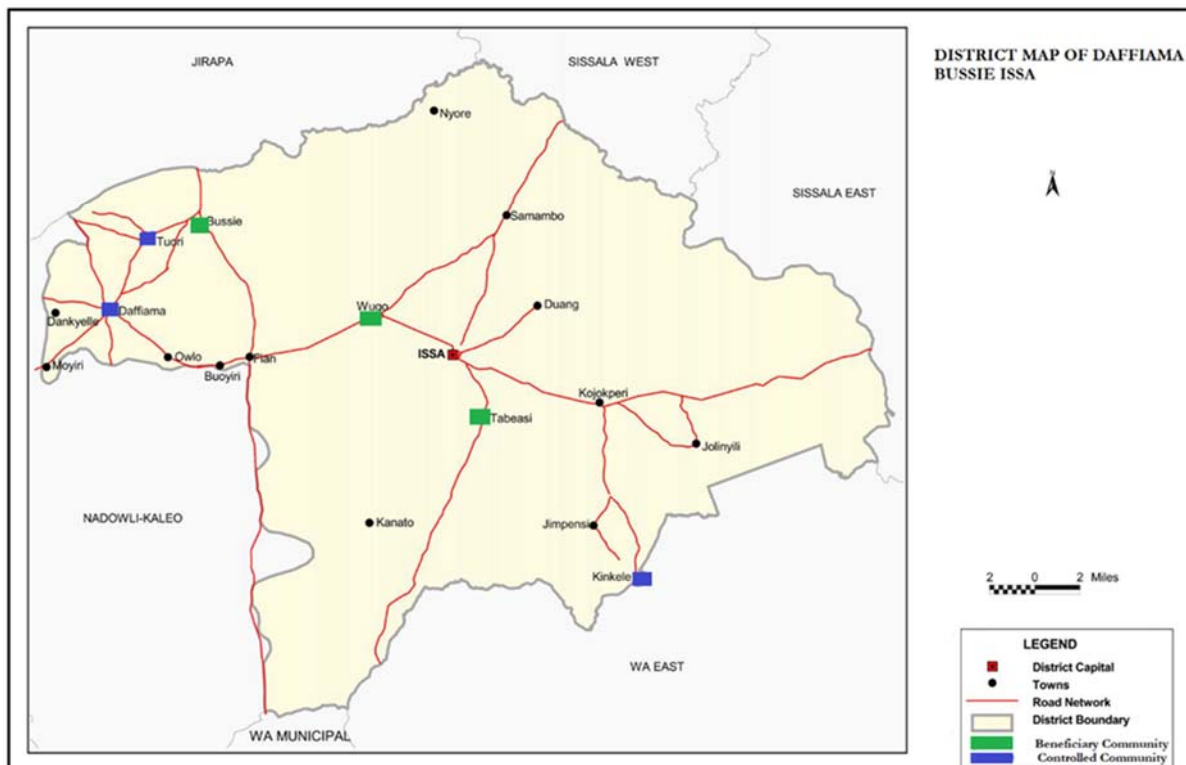
4.4.3 Sampling, method of data collection and analysis methods for part three of the study

This part of the study was to ascertain the impact of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out-migration. The Matched Case-control study design was adopted. Case-control is a type of study designs that is used to identify factors that may contribute to a condition by comparing subjects who have that condition (the 'cases' or treatment group) with subjects who do not have the condition but are otherwise similar (the 'controls' or control group) (Hansson, 2001). The Case control strategy was adopted because it is deemed to be relatively inexpensive and less time consuming (Bloom et al., 2007).

The treatment group was drawn from three beneficiary communities (Bussie, Tabiesi and Wugo) where GSOP constructed a facility using labour intensive methods in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District. The Controlled group was also drawn from non-project communities in the same district

and they include Touri, Daffiama and Kinkele (see Figure 1). The Daffiama Bussie Issa District depicts a typical rural economy dominated by the agriculture sector with the commerce and industrial sectors least developed. Agriculture alone accounts for about 85% of the labour force while commerce/service and industry account for 14% and 1% respectively (GSS, 2014). The district has a population of 32,827 comprising 47.7% males and 51.3% females. Also about 32% of the population are within the youthful age of 15 to 35 years (ibid, 2014).

Figure 4.2 Map of Daffiama Bussie Issah showing treatment and controlled communities



A questionnaire was developed to collect information from households on youth who migrated from the community during the last dry season. Taro's (1970)¹ formula for sample size computation was employed to determine the sample size for households in the communities. (See Table 1). Simple random sampling technique was also used to select households for the study. In each household, the researcher recorded the number of youth aged 15 to 35 who migrated during the last dry season. The data collected were transferred onto the Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) to conduct a one-way ANOVA test.

Table 4.2: Household size and sampled households

Type of community	Number of Households	Sample households
Beneficiary community		
Wogu	442	82
Bussie	420	81
Tabiesi	327	76
Total	1189	239
Non-beneficiary community		
Kinkele	114	52
Touri	106	52
Daffiama	569	85
Total	789	189

The two sampled households were identical in terms of the gender of household head, age of household head, educational attainment, occupation of household head, and household size. The gender profile of the sampled groups indicate that both treatment and controlled groups have males

¹ $X = \frac{n}{1 + n(e)^2}$, Where X is the sample size, n is the total number of households in beneficiary and non-beneficiary communities using household data from the Ghana Statistical Service GSS (2013), e is alpha (0.05)

dominating as household heads. In the treatment group, the male to female ratio is 61:39 while that of the controlled group is 64:36.

For the treatment group, the mean age of the household head was 29 while that of the control group was 28. Also, the minimum and maximum age for household heads were 23 and 59 respectively. Similarly, the control group had a minimum age of 19 and maximum age of 62. A variance ratio test was conducted to determine whether there is a significant difference between the ages of the two sample groups. It was revealed that there was no significant difference between the ages of household heads of the two groups. Since $P=0.5842>0.05$, it was concluded that the sampled household heads have similar ages. Comparing the mean ages of household heads also proved to be equal at 0.05 percent level of significance. The P-value was $0.6258>0.05$.

Literacy rate was used to determine the educational level of household heads. In total, 31.6% of both sampled groups were illiterate. Among this number, 63.2% were female while males constitute 36.8%. To determine the differences in educational attainment of household heads in treatment and controlled communities, a statistical t-test was conducted. The P value of 0.611 which is greater than 0.05 suggests that there is no significant difference between the treatment group and the controlled group.

With regard to the type of occupation of household heads, three different occupations were identified. They are farming, trading and craft. For the treatment group, 91.6% of household heads are farmers, 6% are into trading while 2.4% are into craft. Similarly, 88.4% of the controlled group are farmers, 8.3% are traders while 3.3% are into craft. This suggests that both treatment and controlled groups have an overwhelming majority of household heads engaged in farming activities.

Household size for the treatment group and the controlled group was also compared. The treatment group had a minimum household size of 1 and a maximum of 9. The controlled group on the other hand had a minimum household size of 1 and a maximum of 11. By comparing the variance of the two groups using a variance ratio test, the result was $P=0.915>0.05$. This implies that household size of both treatment and controlled groups were similar. Also, comparing the mean household size revealed that the treatment group has a mean household size of 5.1 while the controlled group has 5.4. By comparing the mean household size of the two groups using the two-sample unpaired t-test, the results indicated that $P=0.525>0.05$. This implies that the mean household size of the treatment group and the controlled group are the same at 0.05% level of significance.

These indicators suggest that aside the LIPW facility in the treatment communities, both treatment and controlled communities are very identical. Therefore, any changes or differences in youth outmigration will most likely be attributed to the public work facility.

The study also used Participatory Learning for Action (PLA) methodology to solicit information from the youth. PLA is a qualitative research method which enables a group of people to share, analyse and evaluate their present living condition and make practicable proposals to improve upon their lives (O'Reilly-de Brún, 2010; Cornwall 1995; Cargo, 2008). It was originally known as Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). Since the 1980s PRA has become very popular among Civil Society Organization as a tool for appraisal and needs assessment in rural communities. Its name was later changed to PLA “to reflect its broader application, and to emphasize that the process is designed to help set in motion locally-led action” (Napier and Simister, 2017:1). PLA involves the use of tools such as transect walk, community mapping, problem tree analysis, timeline diagram, preference ranking, seasonal diagram, livelihood analysis, venn diagram, diary

routine diagram and pairwise ranking. In each treatment community, two PLA sessions were organised. One is made up of 15 young women, the community chief and the researcher as a facilitator. The other was also made of 15 young men, a community chief and the researcher as a facilitator. The youths were randomly selected. The PLA tools I selected and used are transect walk, problem tree analysis and pairwise ranking.

4.4.3.1 Transect Walk

A transect walk is a systematic walk by a researcher and a group of participants along a predetermined route to gather information about things such as land use, social and economic resources as well as the state of the environment (Van Staden et al, 2006). It is mostly used in identifying the causes and effect relationship among nature and human activities as perceived by different groups of local analysts as they walk along a transect (de Zeeuw and Wilbers, 2004). In this study, the purpose of the transect walk was to observe and understand the challenges facing the youth in the treatment communities with regard to the usage of the dugouts provided by GSOP. The researcher together with some selected youth walked along the dugouts and through some farmlands in the communities. Plate 4.1 is a picture of the researcher and some youth on a transect walk in the Bussie community.

Figure 4.3 Researcher and a section of youth on a transect walk



4.4.3.2 Problem tree analysis

A problem tree analysis is a pictorial representation of problems, its causes and its consequences. The trunk of the tree represents the main problem, the roots stand for the causes of the problem while the branches represent the effects of the problem. In conducting problem tree analysis, Fugerson and Hienz (2014) propose that the following steps should be followed;

1. Draw a tree on a flipchart. Ask participants to list the root causes of the problem confronting them on a card. Tape the cards to the roots of the problem tree.
2. Ask the participants to name the consequences of the problem. Write these responses on cards and tape them to the branches of the tree.
3. The participants should then briefly discuss to what extent the intervention addresses the root causes.

4. Repeat the process with other problems once participants demonstrate that they understand the process. Participants can be split into smaller groups to work on different problem trees.
5. Display the problem trees and ask the participants to take a “walk through the forest”.

Group members can briefly present their trees to one another.

These steps were followed in the treatment communities to identify the challenges facing the youth with regard to the usage of the facility created by the GSOP LIPW programme. ODI (2018) mentioned some advantages of using a problem tree analysis. ODI (2018) posit that the use of this technique helps build a shared sense of understanding, purpose and actions. Also, the technique helps to break down problems into manageable and definable chunks. This enables a clearer prioritization of factors.

4.4.3.3 Pairwise ranking

In pairwise ranking, a matrix is used to compare different options against each other to identify a preferred option and the reasons why. Scores are then aggregated to find out the overall favourites. PLA Notes (1997) argues that, in rural communities, those with the loudest voices, who are often the most powerful in the community tend to be heard and override the entire community anytime a choice or decision is to be made. To bring every member of the community on board to ensure that decisions made are participatory, pairwise ranking technique must be adopted. This is because each person has a natural bias toward their own concerns and areas of interest. For this study, problems that were identified through the problem tree analysis were ranked by both male and females to determine priorities among the sexes.

4.4.4 Sampling, data collection and analysis method for part four of the of study

This part of the study was also conducted in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District. The same treatment communities and controlled communities used in part three of the study were used in this study. In each treatment community, 30 youth (comprising 15 males and 15 females) who benefited from the GSOP project were selected using snowball sampling technique. Also, 30 youth (comprising 15 males and 15 females) were selected with the same sampling technique from each of the controlled communities to respond to a questionnaire developed to assess differences in poverty (See appendix G).

Table 4.3 depicts the characteristics of the respondents. The mean age of respondents from the treatment community is 26.9 while that of the controlled community is 28.1. A variance ratio test conducted revealed no significant difference between the ages of the two groups ($P=0.5742>0.05$). Also, the majority of the youth in both treatment communities (78.9%) and controlled communities (83.3%) are farmers with no statistical difference in occupation ($P=0.620>0.05$). Furthermore, 11.1% of youth in treatment communities are unemployed while that of the controlled communities is 15.6%. This also represents no statistical difference since $P=0.0742>0.05$.

It is also instructive to mention that respondents from the controlled communities are prospective LIPW beneficiaries. All three controlled communities have been selected for implementation of the LIPW project, but implementation has since not begun. Also, all members of the controlled group had expressed willingness to participate in the programme if it begins by registering their names at the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development. These suggest that the controlled and treatment groups are very identical, and any changes in poverty levels will most likely be attributed to the public work programme.

Table 4.3 Characteristics of respondents

Characteristics	Beneficiaries	Non-beneficiaries
Mean Age	32.6	29.8
Occupation		
• Farming	71(78.9%)	75(83.3%)
• Craft	7(7.8%)	1(1.1%)
• Service	2(2.2%)	0
• Unemployed	10(11.1%)	14(15.6%)
Total	90(100%)	90(100%)

Four focus group interviews, with each consisting of six males and six females were conducted. One was conducted in a controlled community and three were conducted in the treatment communities. The essence of the discussions were to understand how the youth in both communities perceive poverty. In the treatment communities, the researcher and the youth discussed how the project has impacted on their lives. The same methodology used to analyse focus group interviews in the earlier sections of this chapter was used in this section. Simple percentages, mean scores and graphs were used for data analysis and presentation.

4.5 Reliability and validity

Bernard (2002:50) explains that “reliability has to do with whether or not you get the same answer by using an instrument to measure something more than once”. Validity on the other hand dwells on how truthful and accurate the research findings represent what it seeks to measure. One advantage of the mixed method of research which the study has adopted is ‘weakness minimization’ as coined by Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006: 58). The weaknesses of qualitative or quantitative methods are compensated by the strength of the other after a careful assessment of

the situation and method. According to Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006: 58), the greater the degree that the weakness from one approach is compensated by the strength from the other approach, the more likely that combining a weak inference with a strong inference will lead to a superior or high quality meta-inference.

4.6 Ethical considerations

Unisa Research Ethics Policy was strongly adhered to. This entails applying the four moral principles of the policy. The four moral principles are; autonomy (research should respect the autonomy, right and dignity of research participant), beneficence (research should make a positive contribution toward the welfare of people), non-maleficence (research should not cause harm to the research participants or the general public) and justice (the benefit and risk of research should be fairly distributed among people) (Unisa, 2013). Subsequently, Ethical Clearance was obtained from Unisa's College of Education Ethics Review Committee. (Ref: 2019/02/13/64078779/51/MC- See appendix K)

In applying these principles, participants of the study were recruited voluntarily. They were allowed to decide the kind of questions they want to answer during questionnaire administration and interviews. Shortly after the information is collected either through an interview or questionnaire, the researcher mentioned the information for the participant to confirm in order to ensure accuracy. The Information that was provided was kept confidentially. Names of participants were not mentioned in the study.

4.7 Summary of chapter

This chapter has given a detailed description of the methods and tools employed in the study. It showed how data was gathered through questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussion and

observation. Data analysis tools were also explained. The next chapters are the analysis and presentation of the data.

CHAPTER FIVE

DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS OF GSOP LABOUR INTENSIVE PUBLIC WORK (LIPW) PROGRAMME

5.1 Introduction

Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) is not a completely new concept in Ghana. Throughout the colonial days, Stock (1996) mentioned that most projects initiated by the British colonial government used labour intensive techniques. It was until the 1950s that the government discouraged its use in favour of capital intensive technology to conform to the prevailing technology used by the British government in Britain (ibid, 1996).

During the 1980s, The government of Ghana and its development partners including the World Bank and the International Labour Organization (ILO) became alarmed by the widespread unemployment and poverty in the country. This led to a rethinking on labour intensive strategy for the construction of government projects (Ampadu, 1999). Around this same time, research evidence on the effectiveness of labour intensive techniques had emerged. A world bank sponsored research in 1971 to examine the technical feasibility of substituting labour intensive method of construction with capital intensive method in developing countries revealed that, substituting labour intensive technique for a wide range of construction activities was technically feasible and generally produced the same quality of product as in the case of capital intensive (Stock and de Veen, 1996). A follow up study in 1973-1976 also revealed that labour intensive techniques could be economically competitive to capital intensive methods of construction if workers are provided with adequate tools, good incentives and proper supervision (ibid, 1996).

Subsequently in 1986, the government of Ghana experimented with a LIPW programme with funding support from the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP). This programme was dubbed the ‘Fourth Highway Project’ and was implemented by the Department of Feeder Roads (DFR) ((Twumasi-Boakye, 1996). The programme had three main objectives. First was, the improvement of access to rural areas through the large scale application of cost-saving approaches to feeder roads construction, improvement and maintenance utilizing local resources. Second was, creation of capacity within the department of feeder roads and private contracting firms to efficiently apply cost-saving methodologies to road improvement and maintenance. And finally, creation of additional employment opportunities by the introduction of cost-effective labour-based approaches for feeder road construction, improvement and maintenance (ibid, 1996).

This programme gained some considerable success. Ashong (1996) mentioned that the ‘Fourth Highway Project’ constructed 1,395km of feeder roads using labour intensive techniques. A total of 4,371,815 man-days of employment was created of which 30% of the employees were women. Also, a total of \$3.5 million representing 25% of total project cost were spent on labour.

In recent times, Ghana has been implementing a new version of the LIPW programme under the World Bank funded Ghana Social Opportunity Project (GSOP). This chapter covers the design and implementation process of this new programme. I will also discuss some of the challenges facing the programme from implementers’ perspective.

5.2 Overview of GSOP-LIPW programme

The Ghana Social Opportunity Project (GSOP) is a social protection programme initiated by the Government of Ghana in 2010, and implemented by the Ministry of Local Government and Rural

Development (MLGRD), and the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP). The project seeks to offer jobs and income earning opportunities to some rural folks, especially youth, during the dry season (November to May), through the creation of community infrastructure that has the potential of generating secondary employment in order to reduce rural poverty. Since its inception in 2011, GSOP has implemented three project types through a labour intensive method where the majority of the employees are unskilled. They are (a) small earth dams and dugouts (b) creation of community access or rehabilitation of feeder roads (c) climate change mitigation interventions such as reforestation on degraded public land or communal lands (see Figure 5.1).

The small earth dams and dugouts promote dry season irrigation farming, especially in the northern part of Ghana where the dry season is prolonged. The feeder roads are meant to facilitate the mobility of goods and services to and from the local markets to other big market centres in major towns to facilitate the growth of the rural economy. The climate change mitigation measures are also directed at planting economic trees like acacia, teak and other edible fruits like mango to generate income for the community. As at 31st January 2017, a total of 214 dams and dugouts, 251 rural roads representing 94.62 km and 2,283.64 hectares of reforestation has been created by 167,108 unskilled labour and 1, 073 technicians (MLGRD, 2017).

Figure 5.1: GSOP LIPW Project activities



5.3 Governance and Institutional Structure of GSOP

GSOP is governed by a National Project Steering Committee (NPSC), chaired by the Minister of Local Government and Rural Development. The NPSC provides guidance on strategy, policy and implementation issues of the project. They also coordinate the activities of other ministries and stakeholders involved in the project implementation. The committee meets quarterly in project regional capitals, either in Bolgatanga, Wa or Tamale to undertake their supervisory role. Other members of the NPSC comprises of Chief Directors of the following ministries, departments and agencies;

- (i) Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
- (ii) Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection

- (iii) Ministry of Food and Agriculture
- (iv) Ministry of Works and Housing;
- (v) Ministry of Health;
- (vi) Ministry of Environment, Science and Technology;
- (vii) Ministry of Roads and Highways;
- (viii) Ministry of Interior;
- (ix) Department of Feeder Roads (DFR);
- (x) Ghana Irrigation Development Authority (GIDA);
- (xi) Labour Department;
- (xii) Local Government Service Secretariat(LGSS)
- (xiii) Ghana Association of Private Volunteer Organizations in Development
(GAPVOD) and
- (xiv) Civil Works Contractors Associations (ASROC & PROCA).

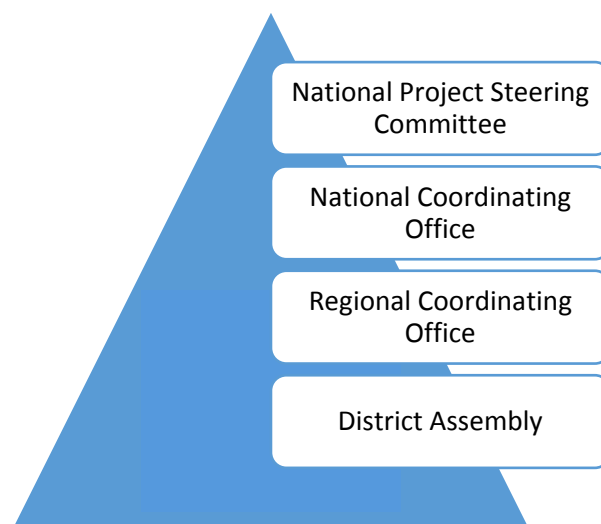
There exists a National Coordinating Office (NCO) which serves as a secretariat for the NPSC. The office coordinates, collates, harmonises, consolidates and reviews annual work programme, budgets and procurement plans. The office also ensures the disbursement of funds to District Assemblies and other implementing agencies; and also conducts monitoring and evaluation to ensure value for money. The NCO is located in Accra with other satellite offices in Tamale, Bolgatanga and Wa in the northern part of Ghana.

At the regional level, the Regional Coordinating Council (RCC) represented by the Regional Planning and Coordinating Unit (RPCU) which includes the Regional Coordinating Director, the Regional Finance Officer and the Regional Economic Planning Officer is responsible for the

administration of GSOP. The Regional Economic Planning Officer who is the chairperson of the RPCU serves as the technical head of the project in the region. With the assistance from the satellite offices of the NCO at the regional level, the RPCU coordinates programme planning and execution, support district assemblies to implement work plans, and monitor the implementation of the GSOP LIPW.

The actual implementation of GSOP LIPW is done at the district level. The District Planning and Coordinating Unit (DPCU) which includes the head of the technical departments of the District Assembly headed by the District Coordinating Director, is absolutely in charge of the project implementation. The DPCU prepares annual work plans with detailed project design, budget, procurement, monitoring as well as payment arrangements. It also conducts feasibility studies, preparation of bidding documents, evaluation of tenders and contract administration. Figure 5.2 depicts the governance structure of GSOP.

Figure 5.2: Governance Structure of the GSOP-LIPW



5.4 Implementation process of the GSOP LIPW programme

The implementation of the Ghana LIPW programme involves six processes. They include; identification of eligible labour intensive projects; targeting, sensitization and selection of beneficiaries; design and preparation of projects; training of implementation stakeholders; and monitoring and supervision; and Payment of wages.

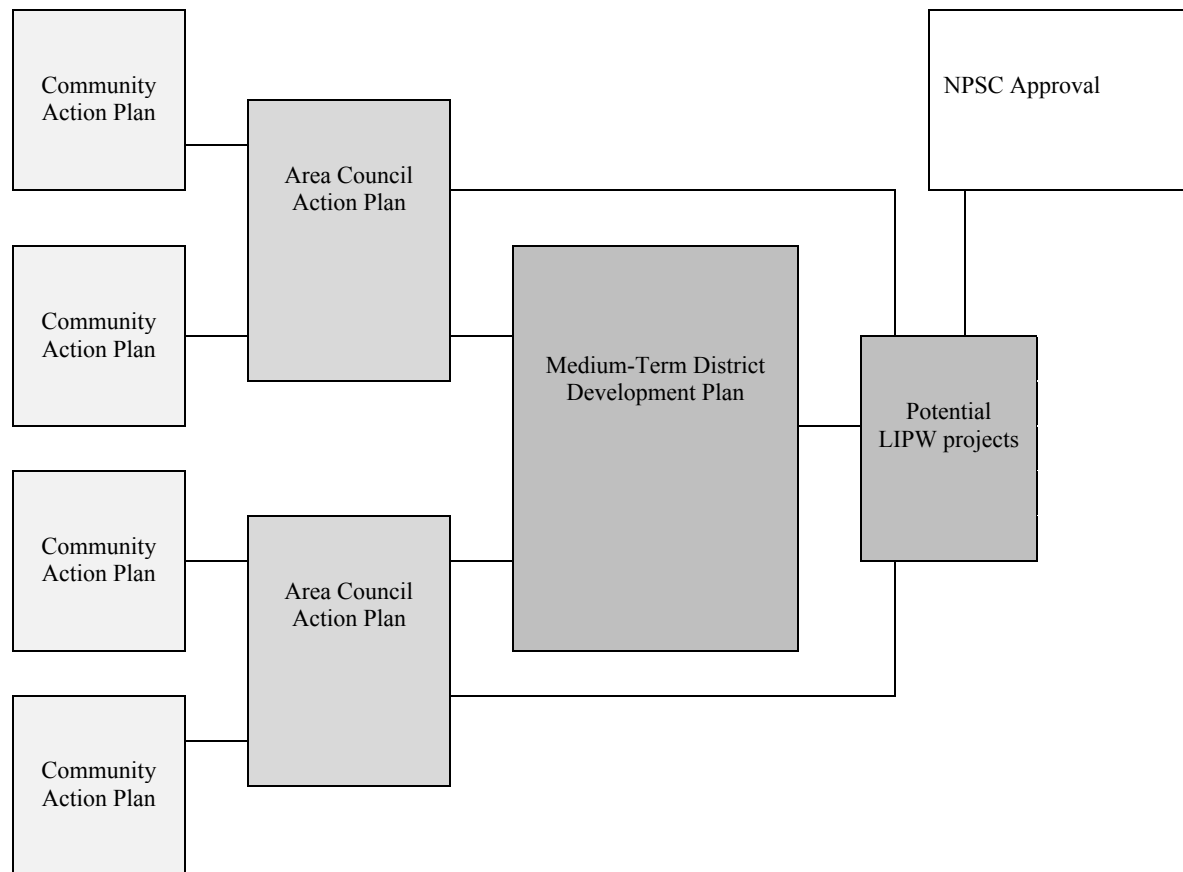
5.4.1 Identification of eligible labour intensive project

As the concept of labour intensive implies, the Ghana LIPW programme prioritises projects that have the potential to engage a high degree of labour. Project with a labour cost between 30% to 80% of total project cost and with whom the majority of the labour belongs to the unskilled category, has a higher chance of getting selected for implementation. This is done to ensure that more rural people who lack employable skills are offered employment. Identification of potential labour intensive projects starts at the community level where community members develop a Community Action Plan (CAP) that prioritises their development needs. In developing the CAP, all stakeholders in the community, including women, the disabled and youth groups are consulted. This is deliberately done to ensure that the plan is owned by the entire community.

The CAP is compiled into an Area Council Plan (ACP) where CAPs of several communities within a geographic location are put together. Subsequently, the District Assembly developed a Medium-Term Development Plan (MTDP) with inputs from the various ACPs. The MTDP is a four year plan approved by the general assembly of the district. It directs the activities and projects to be undertaking within a specified period, and conforms to the national policy direction of the government. Each year, potential labour intensive projects are selected from the MTDP by the General Assembly of the District to develop a GSOP specific annual action plan. This plan is

submitted to the NCO for onward submission to the NPSC for screening and approval. Figure 5.3 depicts the project identification process of the Ghana LIPW programme.

Figure 5.3 LIPW project identification process



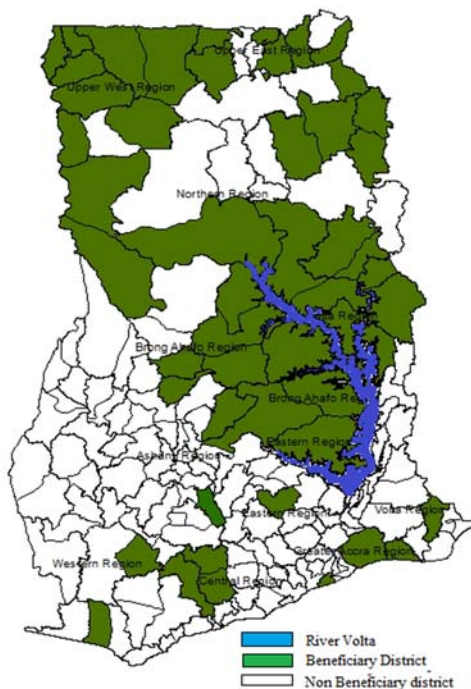
Source: Researchers construct

5.4.2 Targeting, sensitization and selection of beneficiaries

A combination of geographic targeting, self-selection and community based targeting are used in the Ghana LIPW programme. Districts that are selected for LIPW interventions are districts with a high incidence of poverty. The NCO relies on data from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) that shows the spatial distribution of poverty to determine these districts. So far, 60 districts are

beneficiaries of the project with the majority in the savanna zone of Ghana. The savanna² zone of Ghana has a higher participating district because it has a higher incidence of poverty (GSS, 2015). The region experiences one rainy season as compared to the forest zone that has two rainy seasons. This makes farming, the major occupation in Ghana less productive in the savanna zone (Kwankye, 2009). Figure 5.4 is a map of Ghana showing beneficiary districts of the Ghana LIPW programme.

Figure 5.4: Map of Ghana showing beneficiary districts of GSOP-LIPW



In describing how communities are selected, one District Focal Person of GSOP explained that;

“Selection of communities comes along with the selection and approval of projects by the NPSC. A beneficiary community must equally be classified as a poor community. It must have a productive

² comprising of the Upper West, Upper East, Northern, and the northern part of Brongh Ahafo and Volta Regions

labour force that is willing to participate in LIPW. Sometimes due to low productive labour force, some nearby communities are asked to support a selected community with labour. Communities that lie along a road earmarked for construction also benefit by contributing labour for the exercise” – District Focal Person, Jirapa. 2018.

After a community has met the above criteria, two main approaches are adopted to select individual labourers of the programme. Individuals who are capable of working, self-select themselves by registering their names at the District Assembly. Beneficiaries of the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP³) programme who are able and willing to work are also encouraged to register. These names are screened by the Department of Social Welfare and Community Development (with the assistance of a Community Implementation Management Committee) to determine eligible ones. Beneficiaries of the LEAP programme are given priority over other members of the community. This is because the LEAP beneficiaries are the hardest hit by poverty in the community. In a situation where the number of registered labours is more than the expected number of labours to be engaged, a rotational system is adopted. In this instance, some labourers are engaged earlier and later dropped to allow others on the register to also benefit.

Prior to the selection of beneficiaries, an intensive sensitization is staged in the community. Another District Focal Person explained the content of the initial sensitization as follows.

...we educate the community on the objectives of the project. We explain that the project is for a limited timeframe. They are made aware that labourers of the project will be the poor vulnerable people and not everyone will be selected as a labourer. They are told that it is only people of 18 years and above who are qualified to participate... We encourage more women participation. The

³ Government funded cash transfer programme given to the most poor in communities

program is designed in such a way that women can participate without compromising with their household activities. We explain that women will be assigned to work early in the day and will not make them work for more than 6 hours. They are also not made to work in risky areas of excavation. Pregnant women are also not assigned to work on plants or equipment that vibrate. We always stress that women representation should at least be 20% of the selected beneficiaries. Condition of service of the project including wage rate, task and disciplinary issues are also explained to them. This makes it easier for the community members to self-select themselves. – District Focal Person, 2018

5.4.3 Design, project preparation and execution

After a project has been approved by the NCO/NPSC, the District Assembly rely on consultants and staffs from technical Ministries like the Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ghana Irrigation Authority, the Department of Feeder Roads and the Environmental Protection Agency to conduct social and technical assessment of the project. This assessment includes the estimation of the number of persons and days required for the project implementation. A draft Tender documents including specifications, drawings, bills of quantities and conditions of contract are all done by consultants on behalf of the District Assembly.

The District Assembly submits the draft tender documents to the RPCU for review and inputs. This is done to ensure that the design and specifications proposed by the consultants adhere to the labour intensive principle of the project. If the draft tender document is approved by the RPCU, it is sent back to the District Assembly to prepare a final tender document for advertisement. Adverts are placed in at least two newspapers of nationwide circulation and on the notice board of the District Assembly. The District tender committee opens and authenticates all bidding documents

after the deadline of submission has passed. These documents are then submitted to the District Assembly Technical Evaluation Team (TET) for evaluation and subsequent recommendation for the award of contract to the lowest evaluated responsive bidder. The recommendations, contained in an evaluation report, are sent to the tender committee for study and confirmation. If the tender committee is satisfied with the evaluation report, the District Assembly issues a letter of acceptance to the successful bidder. All this is done in accordance with the Public Procurement Act of Ghana (ACT 663).

After the contract has been awarded to the successful bidder, a mobilization site meeting is held on the site/community. This meeting is attended by the contractor and his team, members of the DPCU, Community leaders and the staff of the NCO at the satellite office in the region. One Regional Coordinating Officer explained the purpose of the meeting;

“At this meeting, we introduce the contractor and his team to the other stakeholders of the project, the contractor will meet local community leaders and establish a relationship with them. We also discuss the obligation of the contractor to the community and that of the community to the contractor. The community will then assist the contractor to choose a place to set up a site camp where tools and equipment will be kept for the commencement of work.” – Regional Coordinating Officer, Upper West Region 2018.

5.4.4 Training of implementation stakeholders

Training is a major component of the Ghana LIPW programme because of the high technical content of planning involved in labour intensive infrastructure works (Ashong, 1996). To ensure effective training for successful implementation of the LIPW, three main initiatives were undertaken by the NCO. Firstly, the NCO signed a two-year partnership agreement with the

International Labour Organization (ILO) to provide technical assistance. Second was the use of the Koforidua Training Centre (KTC) of the Ministry of Roads and Transport to serve as a hub for training of labour intensive construction practitioners. Thirdly, a model training site for roads and small earth dam construction was established in the Upper East Region for practical training of programme practitioners.

Each year, the NCO conducts a capacity gap analysis to determine the training needs of beneficiary districts and subsequently conduct training to ensure that there are enough practitioners to guarantee adequate supervision of work in the year. The beneficiaries of the training programmes include members of the DPCU and staffs of the works department, staffs of supporting agencies like the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority, the Department of Feeder Roads, the Forestry Services Division, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, and staffs of small-scale construction companies engaged in LIPW. These participants are taken through a three to six weeks intensive training programme, consisting of classroom work at the KTC and a hand-on practical experience at the model training sites in the Upper East Region.

With support from the ILO, GSOP has developed two training manuals on LIPW for the training. One is entitled “A practitioner’s guide to rural road improvement and maintenance” and the other is “A practitioner’s guide to rehabilitation of dams, dugouts and other related facilities”. The introductory part of these manuals introduces trainees to labour-intensive methods of construction and discusses the advantages of using labour-intensive methods. Trainees are taught how to use hand tools and light equipment, estimation of labour content in a given project, surveying, excavating, gravelling, drainage construction, work programming, environmental and social safeguard, management of construction sites and documentations for LIPW projects.

As at 31st January 2017, a total of 973 practitioners of LIPW had been trained in Ghana. This comprised of 654 contractor supervisors from small-scale construction companies, 183 client supervisors from the district work departments of participating Assemblies, 121 climate change mitigation supervisors from the district agriculture department and the forestry department, and 49 engineers from the Department of Feeder Roads and the Ghana Irrigation Development Authority (MLGRD, 2017).

In trying to state how participants of the training programme have benefited from it, this is how some participants described their achievement:

“I initially taught that the labour intensive method of construction is a waste of time and resources because our illiterate brothers and sisters in this district cannot produce anything quality like what will be achieved if we use machines to construct. Now I have come to realise that with the right supervision, they can equally construct dugouts and roads with similar quality with their hands.”- Contractor, Wa East District.

“We lack staff in my department, I am the only staff at the works department but holds a qualification in draftsmanship. When I heard of the project I was worried about my capacity to effectively supervise it in the district. I was happy to hear that GSOP was organizing training for supervisors. Now I can confidently say that due to the training, I have been very effective on site. My training manuals are still with me and I consult it anytime I need assistance.”- Client supervisor, Nandom District

5.4.5 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation is an integral part of the implementation process of the Ghana LIPW programme. Table 5.1 depicts the performance indicators of the GSOP-LIPW. Five main levels of

monitoring structures are in place for the project implementation. They are the Community Implementation Management Committee (CIMC), Area Council Implementation Management Committee (ACIMC), District Planning and Coordinating Unit (DCPU), Regional Planning and Coordinating Unit (RPCU), and the monitoring unit of the NCO and the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development at the national level.

The CIMC is made of seven (7) members from the community nominated by the community and approved by the District Assembly. Their main task is to supervise and monitor the implementation of the project in the community. Two members of the committee are specifically assigned to directly monitor the activities of the project. A user friendly score card designed by the NCO for data capture, which requires manual recording and summation are given to these members as a tool for community level monitoring and evaluation. The CIMC conducts spot checks every two (2) days on the project site and informs the Area Council and the District Assembly on progress of work. They also organize and participate in community fora to brief the community on progress and way forward.

The next level of the monitoring structure is the ACIMC. This is a five (5) member committee selected from an area council. In situations where a project cut across more than one community, the assembly members of the respective communities are included in the committee. Two members of the committee are specifically designated for monitoring and evaluation. The committee conducts on-the-spot checks weekly on project site and beneficiary communities and informs the District Assembly on the progress of work. Challenges with regard to project implementation are also conveyed to the District Assembly for resolution.

At the district level, the DPCU is responsible for monitoring and evaluation. The District Planning Officer who doubles as secretary to the DPCU acts as the focal person for monitoring and evaluation. The DPCU organizes weekly meetings and on-the-spot checks every two weeks in all project sites and communities within the district. They also train the CIMC on how to conduct effective monitoring and evaluation. Their goal is to track project performance, ensure proper targeting of project beneficiaries, physical and service output, outcomes and evaluation of impact. They keep a data bank on the project and submit quarterly reports on the progress of the project to all stakeholders.

Similarly, the RPCU is in charge of monitoring and evaluation at the regional level. The Regional Planning Officer who equally doubles as secretary to the RPCU also serves as the focal person for Monitoring and evaluation in the region. The team organizes on-the-spot checks monthly in all districts to supervise the project. They help track the performance of the District Assemblies in the region and identify disparities in access to infrastructure and services among districts. The RPCU is also responsible for facilitating monitoring and evaluation capacity building programmes for the ACIMC and the DPCU. They keep a data bank on the project and submit semi-annual reports to project stakeholders.

At the apex of the monitoring structure is a core monitoring team composed of the Directors of the Department of Planning, Budgeting, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPBME) of the MLGRD, the Local Government Service (LGS), and the Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist of the NCO. This team tracks the overall implementation performance of the project including project administration and reports to the NPSC. They design monitoring and evaluation systems and mainstream it into the project execution. They are also tasked to recommend an independent Monitoring and

Evaluation consultant to conduct impact evaluation of the entire project. To assist them in successfully performing their task, they conduct on-the-spot checks every quarter to abreast themselves with the situation in the field.

Table 5.1: Performance indicators of GSOP LIPW		
Objective	Project outcome indicators	Use of outcome information
To develop a LIPW programme as a rural safety net instrument in target districts to increase cash income for rural poor during agricultural off-season	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Total number of poor rural persons in target districts temporarily employed in LIPW during the agricultural off-season, disaggregated by district. 2. Average number of days that participating individuals have thus been employed in LIPW during the agricultural off-season (November 1st – March 31st). 3. Average cash earnings per poor rural person participating in LIPWs. 4. Number of target districts that have integrated LIPWs as rural safety net instruments in routine planning, budgeting and operational procedures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● LIPW-based rural safety net instruments can be scaled-up to be used when and where needed (i.e. national coverage and/or rapid expansion to mitigate impact of external shocks). ● Design of a follow-up support operation (for instance in the form of program rather than project support). ● Policy advice on the mainstreaming of LIPW methods to construct and maintain public rural infrastructure.

Source: Interview with M&E Specialist, 2018

5.4.6 Payment of wages in the GSOP LIPW

The wage rate for a day's work is set by the NPSC. This rate is deliberately set below the minimum wage rate for unskilled labour to ensure that the vulnerable people, which mostly include the youth

and women who lack employable skills are attracted to the project. The wage rate is therefore pegged at GH 7 for six-hour work in a day. A community facilitator explained how the GH 7 is earned by project participant;

“Each day that a beneficiary on the register reports to work, the contractor assigns a task rate to individuals or a group of participants to do. I, with the support of the client supervisor, ensures that the task is not above or below the capacity of the individual or group. At the close of work, the client supervisor and the contractor will go round the site to check all the tasks assigned to confirm if it has been properly done. If we are satisfied with work done, I mark the person or persons who perform the task on my daily attendance sheet. I do this for a week and submit the sheet to the District Office for payment.” – Community Facilitator, Nadowli-Kaleo. 2018.

All beneficiaries of GSOP projects are registered on the E-zwich payment platform at the start of the project. The E-zwich payment system offers deposit taking financial institutions a platform that enables them to interoperate. As an E-zwich card holder, it is no longer necessary to commute to a specific bank just to do a banking transaction. The District Finance Officer prepares the payment order and submits it to the NCO for onward submission on the E-zwich electronic payment platform. An Officer at the NCO explains why they prefer the E-zwich payment system;

“Initially, we used to pay beneficiaries on table top (Manual way of carrying physical cash to pay beneficiaries). We heard so many complaints about beneficiaries not receiving the right amount of money to owe them. Some of them too complain about the delays in payment. The E-zwich payment makes things easier this time. We affect all the payment from our head office in Accra directly into beneficiaries' E-zwich account. This also removes the logistical issues always associated with the delay in paying beneficiaries on table top. Reconciliation of our accounts are also made easier and timely.”

In every district, there is a selected bank that is responsible for the payment of wages on the project site. Payments are done every two weeks of work in beneficiary communities. The District Focal Person makes arrangements with the selected bank for payment of wages and decides on the specific date of the payment. This date is communicated to the contractor, the community facilitator and the CIMC to mobilize the beneficiaries for payment. A GSOP focal person explain why payment are done every two weeks of work;

“Paying beneficiaries every added week is very deliberate. We want to inculcate the culture of saving among the beneficiaries. By keeping the money for two weeks, we are stimulating savings”.

5.5 Implementers’ perspective on challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme

Regional and district officials recounted some implementation challenges facing the programme. Inadequate capacity was the most common complaint. The capacity problems that were mentioned included few staff to monitor work being carried out on project sites, limited access to vehicles, frequent breakdown of motorbike, and delay in the release of funds for project implementation. One client supervisor mentioned that;

I was overburdened with the GSOP LIPW supervision. At one point in time, we were implementing four projects and I was in charge of supervising it alone. These communities are very far from each other. Meanwhile, the motorbike provided by the GSOP secretariat to us was not good. It breaks down too often. Most of the time, I am not able to visit all the sites. Client supervisor, Nadowli.

All the three GSOP District Focal Persons interviewed mentioned delay in the release of funds for the project to start. The district focal person in Jirapa explains how the delay affect the project implementation;

When the funds delay, we are not able to start the work early in the dry season. So the project sometimes runs into the rainy season. At that time, it becomes extremely difficult to construct roads and dams using labour intensively. Most of the beneficiaries are also farmers and will like to go back to do their regular farm during the rainy season. Some of them quit their jobs to work on their farms during the rainy season.

Over-subscription of the project by community members was also reported as a challenge especially in Northern Ghana. Due to higher levels of poverty and unemployment in Ghana, community members tend to over subscribe to any intervention that seeks to address their needs. Project implementers therefore anticipate that there is a higher probability of recording a higher inclusion and exclusion error.

Another problem mentioned by some officials is the issue of political interference in the selection of beneficiaries and contractors. One official explain that;

“Some political figures mount pressure on officers in charge of the selection to enlist members of their political party who may not be qualified on the programme. Others insist that their preferred beneficiaries work for a longer period. This is likely to erode the project objective of targeting the most vulnerable people. Also when it come to the contractors, all though we try our possible best to follow the dictates of the procurement law, we find out that people have their own way of going around the process and in the end we are presented with sub-standard contractors who are very difficult to work with”

5.6 Discussion

The GSOP LIPW programme can best be described as a short term safety net social protection programme. This is because the programme offers a one time short term employment for

beneficiaries during a season and does not engage them in successive seasons. It is therefore highly unlikely that the project could move participants out of poverty. Although studies have shown that short term safety net programmes increase beneficiaries income in the short run, its impact on poverty in the long run has been insignificant. An example is the Liberian Cash for Work Temporary Employment Programme (CfWTEP). Although the project created employment for 17,000 people, only 5% were able to move beyond the standard poverty line of \$1 a day in the long run (Backiny-Yetna, Wodon and Zampaglione, 2011). Hartwig (2014) also reported that beneficiaries of the Rwandan Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme invested in livestock after receiving their wages from the programme and subsequently reported a livestock holding higher than that of the non-beneficiaries. However, beneficiaries of the programme reverted back to livestock holdings similar to that of the non-beneficiaries in the long run.

The institutional arrangement of the GSOP LIPW programme makes it easier for effective programme implementation. This is what Najam (1995) referred to as ‘Context’. Najam emphasized that context or the corridor through which a policy or project is implemented is very crucial for the success of any implementation exercise. The GSOP LIPW programme relies on the existing functional decentralized structures in the country. Costella and Manjolo (2010) report that such an arrangement makes public work programme implementation cost effective, swift and adaptive. They cited the Liberia Agency for Community Empowerment (LACE) and its decentralized structures for being able to quickly implement a public work programme to respond to the food crisis that affected all 15 counties in the country.

Also, the inclusion of the Department of Feeder Roads (DFR) in the project implementation is likely to enhance the smooth implementation of the road construction sub-project of GSOP. The

DFR led the implementation of the LIPW programme in the 1980s and has acquired some considerable experience in public work programmes. Ashong (1996) mentioned that the DFR led programme created 4,371,815 man-days of employment with 30% of the employees being women, and constructed 1,395km of feeder roads. This is also an example of what Najam (1995) referred to as capacity. Najam mentioned that capacity, which include attributes like experience, commitment, endurance and guts are needed to transform intended actions to reality.

The GSOP LIPW programme is likely to attract more women due to its gender sensitivity in selection and assigning tasks to beneficiaries. Women are assigned to perform tasks that are not very risky and do not require much strength as compared to their male counterparts. A study of the Malawi Social Action Fund (MSAF) public work programme reveals that barriers that inhibit women's participation in public work programmes include distance, task rate and childcare availability (Costella and Manjolo, 2010). This is also likely to have a positive impact on their children because studies have shown that women's access to labour and income goes hand in hand with improvement in women and children wellbeing (Del Ninno, 2009)

The involvement of community members in sub-project identification and monitoring of the programme is very commendable. Najam (1995) referred to this as 'clients and coalition'. According to Warwick (1982:163), these groups or individuals can speed up, slow, stop or redirect policy implementation. Najam (1995:52) indicated that, client's interest must be examined because it is the interplay between various actors, their interest, and their strategies that influences ultimate implementation effectiveness. Therefore, the involvement of community members in the project implementation is very likely to encourage prompt feedback and early resolution of problems since community members are always in touch with the happenings in the community. Costella and

Manjolo, (2010) contend that such an arrangement leads to more transparent transfer of funds, promote community ownership which in turn leads to the sustainability of public work assets. In South Africa, McCord (2018) found out that the involvement of the community enhanced the effectiveness of the Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP). Also in Yemen, Subbarao et al (2013) noticed that communities where beneficiaries were involved in monitoring and evaluation reported fewer implementation problems than those without community involvement. However, the wage rate of GH7 set by the NPSC without any sort of consultation with the community members could face some resistance. In Liberia, setting the wage rate of \$2.50 which was considered to be below the minimum wage of \$3 for unskilled laborers faced a lot of challenges. According to Andrew et al (2012:137), previous projects engaging unskilled labour had paid \$3 as wage. Community members therefore had the perception that \$3 was the standard wage rate but project implementers were bent on diverting part of their wage for their own selfish gains. Subsequently, the programme adopted \$3 as a wage rate.

Challenges facing the GSOP LIPW programmes mentioned by programme implementers are common to most public work programmes implemented in Africa. Inadequate capacity has been cited in South Africa, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Ivory Coast and Malawi (Hartwig, 2014; Andrew et al, 2012; Berhane et al 2017; Gerke and Hartwig, 2015; McCord, 2018). This could be due to poor planning before project initiation. It is therefore recommended that effective feasibility studies be conducted on all aspects of future public work projects before initiation. Issues of political interference with selection of beneficiaries and contractors are disturbing and very difficult to solve. This is because politicians control resources and have a large influence on people in Africa and Ghana in particular. However, continuous engagement with the politicians, civil society

organizations and sensitization by project implementers on the objectives of public work programmes can help reduce the influence.

5.7 Summary of chapter

The GSOP social protection programme is a short term safety net social protection initiative aimed at reducing rural unemployment and poverty. The institutional arrangement put in place by the GSOP secretariat is likely to ensure effective programme implementation. However, it is unlikely that this project will move participants out of poverty. This is because other short term safety net programmes implemented in the African sub-region have not been very effective in reducing poverty. Challenges confronting the programme can be reduced by conducting proper feasibility studies and effective sensitization by project implementers on project objectives.

CHAPTER SIX

ASSESSMENT OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE GSOP LIPW PROGRAMME BY BENEFICIARIES

6.1 Introduction

In Najams (1995) 5Cs of policy implementation, 'Clients and coalition' refers to those groups or individuals whose interests are enhanced or threatened by the policy and the actions they take in response to the impact of the policy implementation. Therefore, clients and coalition in the context of the GSOP LIPW programme are the beneficiaries of the programme and the interactions they have with the programme. Najam (1995:52) indicated that, client's interest must be examined because it is the interplay between various actors, their interest, and their strategies that influences ultimate implementation effectiveness. In this chapter, I assessed the implementation of the GSOP LIPW programme from the beneficiaries' perspective.

Most often, beneficiaries of major development interventions are denied a voice loud and clear enough to be heard by implementers of development initiatives. But studies have shown that beneficiary assessment of development interventions leads to major gains. A study conducted by Salmen (1998) revealed two major benefits. They include benefit to project design and cost savings benefits. On the benefit to project design, Salmen mentioned that the design of an overwhelming number (84%) of 41 projects funded by the World Bank were changed because of the insights gained from beneficiary assessment. Beneficiaries were able to identify underperforming service providers contracted by the World Bank, and agitated for a change that resulted in the inclusion of about 30% additional beneficiaries. On cost saving benefits, Salmen continued that, In Uzbekistan,

Kazakhstan and Uganda, beneficiary assessment inspired changes in project design saved US\$390 million, US\$25 million and US\$1 million respectively.

In conducting beneficiary assessment for the implementation of LIPW programmes, The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2013) recommends that the assessment should address the following questions;

1. Are the targeted beneficiaries being reached by the public work programme?
2. Do beneficiaries receive adequate information?
3. Are payments received on time?
4. Does the public work accommodate the needs of women?
5. Are payments accurate and easily accessible to beneficiaries?

Subsequently, I proceeded to inquire about how satisfied the beneficiaries of the GSOP LIPW programme in the Upper West Region are with regard to the above questions. The following sections are results from the study.

6.2 Characteristics of the respondents

The study revealed that the majority of the beneficiaries of the GSOP LIPW programme were females represented by 63.4% while males constitute only 36.6% (See Table 6.1). This high female participation is very encouraging. This could lead to a larger impact on family wellbeing. As indicated by Del Ninno (2009), women are able to improve their wellbeing and that of their children when they have access to labour and income. The large number of female participation could be attributed to the programme design and the general vulnerability of women as compared with men.

Women account for 70% of people worldwide who are considered to be poor on the basis of income (Buvinic and Gupta, 1997). Therefore, women are more likely to be attracted to this project which is meant to serve the poorest than men. A study of the Malawi Social Action Fund (MSAF) public work programme reveals that barriers that inhibit women participation in public work programmes include distance, task rate and childcare availability on project sites (Costella and Manjolo, 2010). Information gathered from the FGD indicates that women performed tasks that were not very risky and too difficult to do. One beneficiary made the following statement during the focus group discussion and was supported by the entire members of the group;

“Before we started the project, the people (project implementers) told us that they expect at least 20% of the workers to be females. They also mentioned that we females will not be performing difficult tasks like our husbands. That is why a lot of us flooded the work. True to their words we the females were not engaged in excavation” – Beneficiary, Naaha.

Also, Table 6.1 indicates that 64.6% of the respondents are within the ages of 18 to 35 while their elderly counterpart, 36 years and above constitute 35.4%. It can therefore be argued that the arduous nature of labour intensive public work makes it more suitable for the youth than the elderly. The project demands a lot of strength which most elderly people do not possess. However, in a study conducted by Al-Iryani, de Janvry, and Sadoulet (2015) on LIPW in Yemen, they mentioned that people above middle age are most likely to possess some skills and hence are not attracted to unskilled jobs.

With regards to the occupation of respondents, the majority (66.2%) were farmers while 29% were unemployed. This is an indication that most of the respondents were vulnerable. The farmers become unemployed during the long dry season from November to May.

Table 6.1: Background characteristics of respondent (n=500)

Characteristics	N	%
Sex distribution		
Male	233	36.6
Female	267	63.4
Age		
18-35	323	64.6
36-50	86	17.2
51-60	67	13.4
60+	24	4.8
Occupation		
Farming	331	66.2
Trading	24	4.8
Unemployment	145	29

6.3 Reasons for participating in LIPW

In answering why the respondents decided to participate in the LIPW, the majority of them gave multiple answers. 97% young people (18-35 years) and 91% elderly (35+) were attracted to the programme because of the monetary benefit. 81.3% young people and 27% elderly wanted to learn a skill to aid them secure a job at a future time while 78.5% youth and 62.3% adults joined because they lack employment opportunities (See Table 2). Consequently, the desire for money and job opportunity are a major reason why both youth and the elderly participate in LIPW. However, the youth are more attracted by the opportunity to learn new skills than the elderly. In South Africa, Musekene (2010) reported similar results. Musekene mentioned that the people of Thulamela and Makhado Local Municipality joined LIPW because they have no alternative jobs.

Table 6.2: Reasons for participating in LIPW

Reason to participate in LIPW	Age	
	18-35	35+
To get money	97%	91%
To learn a skill	81.3%	27%
Lack of job opportunity	78.5%	62.3%
Others	5.9%	17%

Source: Field survey

6.4 Satisfaction with the implementation of the GSOP LIPW

Beneficiaries were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with some components of the implementation. The components of the implementation includes; adequacy and flow of information, quality of the LIPW asset, selection of beneficiaries, amount of wage paid, timeliness of payment, mode of payment and the duration of involvement in the implementation of the LIPW programme.

6.4.1 Level of satisfaction with the adequacy and flow of information to beneficiaries

The study revealed that District Assembly officials are the key source of information of the programme to the beneficiaries. Majority of the respondents (61.3%) indicated that they heard about the LIPW programme through government representative, 31.3% also indicated that they heard from their friends or family members while 7.4% responded that beneficiaries of the project in other communities informed them. Some beneficiaries explained how they heard about the programme in the following statements;

“When I heard the community assembly bell rang, I rushed to the community centre. It was there that we were told that some people from the District Assembly Office had come with some good news. They explained that we were going to build the dug-out with our hands and not machines.”

-Beneficiary, Konzokolaa.

“When I returned from the farm, my mother told me some people had come to us and they wanted to come and construct the road linking this community to the next community. She said they will be looking for people to work so I should go and register my name. I went and confirmed the information from the Assembly Man and he assisted me to register my name.” – Beneficiary, Loggu.

Table 6.3: Source of knowledge of LIPW by beneficiaries

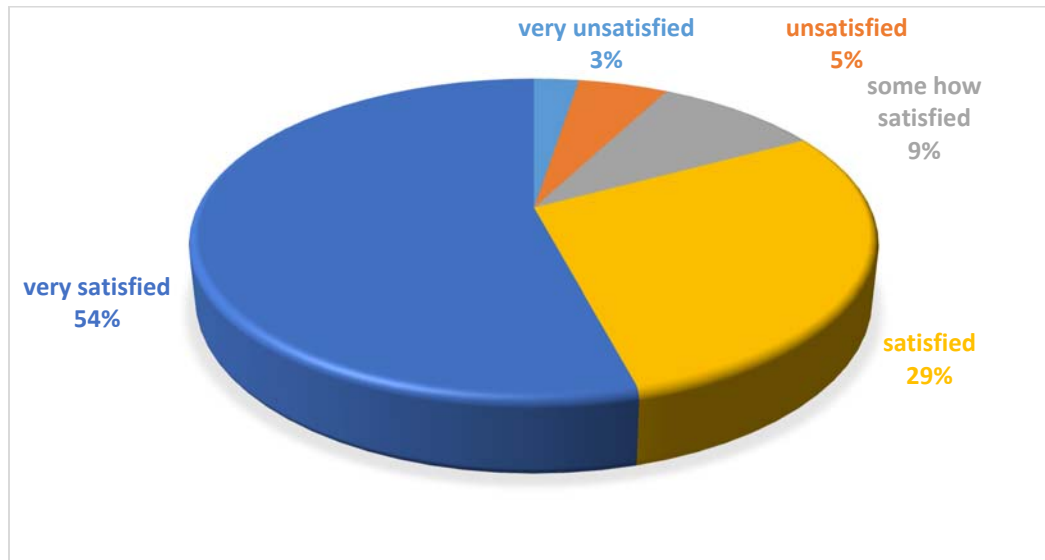
Source of knowledge of LIPW project	Percentage (%)
Government representative	61.3
Friends/Relatives	31.3
Beneficiaries of GSOP LIPW	7.4
Total	100

Source: Field survey

On the level of satisfaction with the adequacy of information to beneficiaries, the majority of the respondents (54% and 29%, see Figure 6.2) indicated that they were either very satisfied or satisfied. The focus group discussion revealed that information concerning project activities were given to beneficiaries on time. They confirmed that eligibility criteria for selection onto the project were also well explained to them by the project implementers. They mentioned that there were community facilitators who were always present on site to convey any information from project implementers to the beneficiaries. Also, there existed a Community Implementation Management Committee (CIMC) which conducted spot-checks on project sites two times in a week. Challenges facing beneficiaries with regard to project implementation were reported to the District office by this committee for resolution. The committee also reliably informs beneficiaries on the date for payment of wages for the beneficiaries to prepare. The consequence of this high satisfaction level by beneficiaries with the adequacy of information is that it reduces resentment-provoking misunderstandings among the beneficiaries and corruption by project implementers (Subbarao

2003). In South Africa, Samson et al. (2006) reported that poor communication on eligibility criteria of the EPWP resulted in the abuse and leakage of project funds.

Figure 6.1: Level of satisfaction with adequacy and flow of information



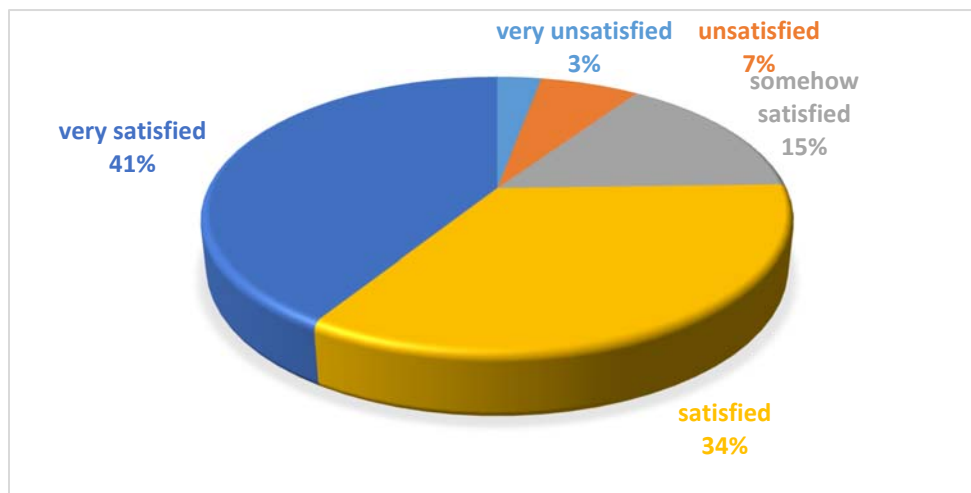
6.4.2 Level of satisfaction with the selection of beneficiaries

Majority of the respondents (41% and 34%) were either satisfied or very satisfied with the selection of beneficiaries as shown in Figure 6.2. Only 10% indicated they were not satisfied with the selection. This is an indication that the targeting process of the GSOP LIPW programme had gone well in selecting the poorest people. Some beneficiaries expressed their views on why they rated the selection process as satisfactory as follows;

“When they came to our community to inform us about the project, they told us that only the poorest people will be selected for participation in the work. When I look around to see the faces of my colleagues who have equally been selected, I don’t see any rich person among us. We are all poor and everyone in this community can testify.” - Beneficiary (Loggu focus group discussion)

I thought a disabled person like me will not make the selection even though I am very poor. But they selected me and placed me in an area that I can work comfortably with my disability. I was in charge of supplying drinking water to the entire team. Other members who were also very old and could not dig with pickaxes were also enrolled and assigned to clean tools. Beneficiary (Naaha focus group discussion)

Figure 6.2: Level of satisfaction with targeted beneficiaries



6.4.3 Level of satisfaction with the wage rate

Beneficiaries do not appear to be very content with the GH¢7 offered them as wage for a day's work as indicated in Figure 6.3. About 40% of them were not satisfied with the amount. 30% were somehow ok with it while 16% and 14% were satisfied and very satisfied respectively. During the focus group discussions in all three communities, participants agreed that the wage rate should be increased to GH¢ 10. However, there was a minority view in one of the focus group discussions that suggested they did not deserve any wage at all. They explained that the project is meant to help them and without the government intervention, they would have mobilized to construct the

project themselves. They felt the government has been very generous to them by offering them a wage. The following statements are some expressions from the beneficiaries;

“The money they gave us was not good, when someone hires me on his farm, I am paid GH15 a day. I will wish that they increase the money to at least GH¢10” Beneficiary, Naaha.

“I feel it is not appropriate but I can’t complain much. When I look around, there is no job in this community so I have to accept it like that. As they always say ‘a poor man has no choice’. I will only pray that more of such works come around so we can have something to do in the dry season.” Beneficiary Naaha.

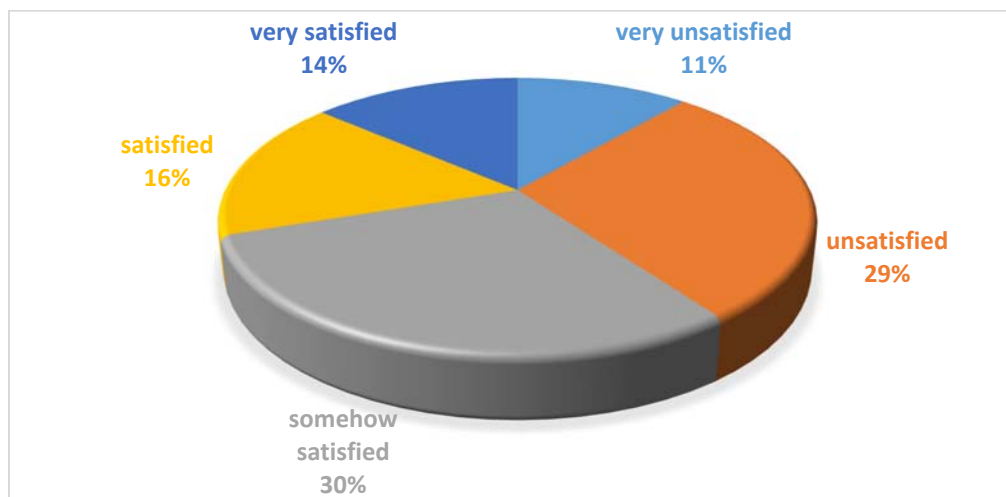
“We noticed that some of the men who started working with us left the job because of the money. There is an illegal mining site in the nearby community that offers a higher pay. My husband for instance quit the LIPW job and joined illegal mining. If you increase the money to GH¢15 It will help us a lot.” Beneficiary, Konzokalaa.

“The money paid is very good and I am very excited. This dugout is for us and we were to rehabilitate it by our own selves. Now someone comes to build it for you and offer you something small, I think this is rather similar to winning a lottery. I thank the government very much for thinking about us.” Beneficiary, Loggu.

During the focus group discussion, it was revealed that the wage rate was set without any sort of consultation with the community and beneficiaries. This explains why beneficiaries are complaining about the inadequacy of the wage. Subbarao (2003) has suggested that involving the community in deciding the appropriate wage for the programme will eliminate a lot of challenges. In this way, community members will understand the goal of the programme and the reason behind

the setting of low wage. He contends that the wage setting process needs to be transparent in order for it to be accepted by the community, donors and the implementing agency. In Liberia, lack of involvement of beneficiaries in setting the wage rate created a lot of challenges for programme administrators. Beneficiaries were offered \$2.5 which was lower than the minimum wage of \$3. According to Andrew et al. (2012), previous projects engaging unskilled labour had paid \$3 as wage. Community members therefore had the perception that \$3 was the standard wage rate but project implementers were bent on diverting part of their wage for their own selfish gains. Subsequently, the programme adopted \$3 as a wage rate.

Figure 6.3: Level of satisfaction with the wage rate



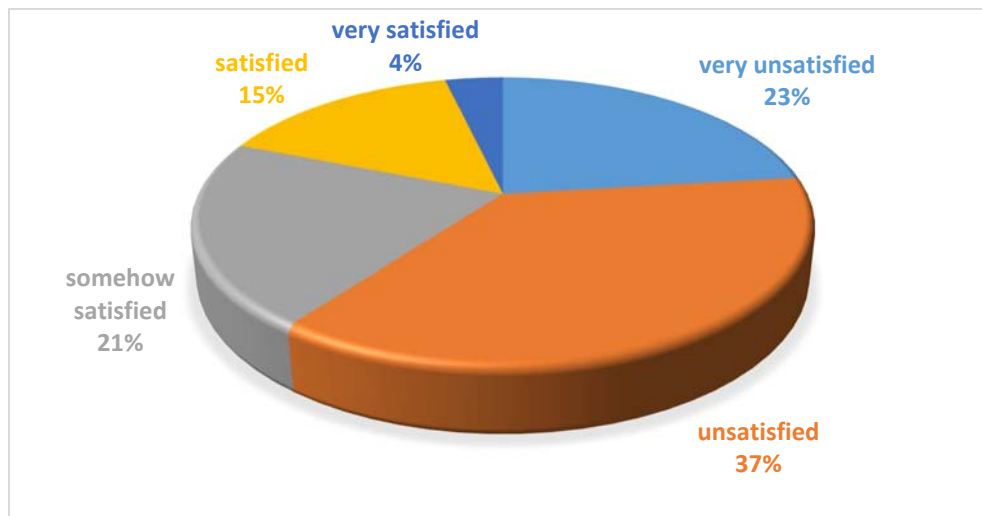
6.4.4 Level of satisfaction with the timeliness of payment

As indicated in Figure 6.4, the majority of the respondents (60%) were unhappy with the delays in the payment of their wages. About 21% are somehow satisfied while 15% and 4% are satisfied and very satisfied respectively.

Beneficiaries indicated that the project administrator had a prior arrangement with them that payment will be effected on every two weeks of work. However they complained that payment

could delay as late as eight weeks. It is therefore not surprising that beneficiaries are unsatisfied with the delays in payment. Costella and Manjolo (2010) have mentioned that “in many cases, if payments are not made on time, the coping and protective effect of these temporary income transfers is lessened. In some cases, beneficiaries may be forced to borrow at high interest rates from local money lenders, sell off assets in the case of shock, or other strategies which may lock them into longer-term poverty traps”.

Figure 6.4: Level of satisfaction with the timeliness of payment



6.4.5 Level of satisfaction with the mode of payment

As shown in Figure 6, more than half of the respondents (44% and 8%) were unsatisfied and very unsatisfied with the E-Zwich card payment method. 10% and 25% were satisfied and very satisfied respectively. Although the figures suggest that the majority of beneficiaries were not satisfied with the payment method, it was revealed during the focus group discussions that the majority of the beneficiaries were paid with the E-zwich payment method without any form of problem. The respondents seemed to be unhappy and sympathize with the few people who had problems with

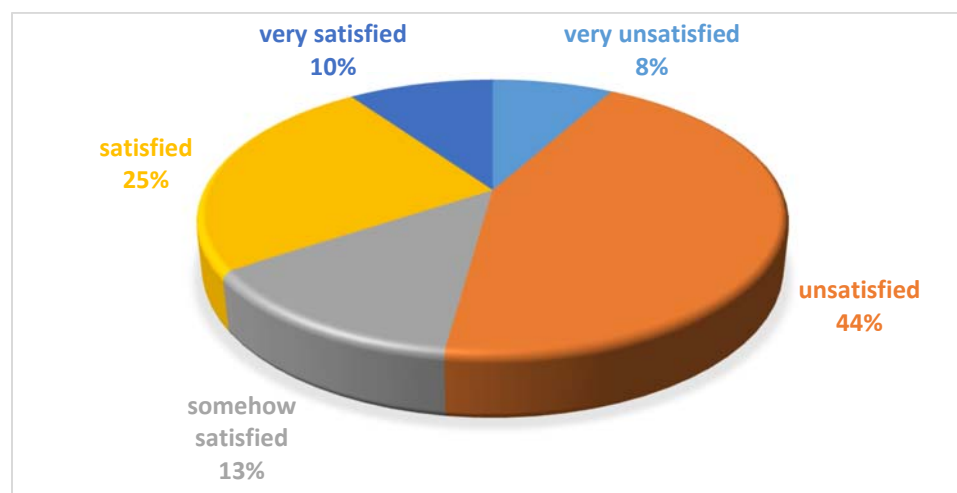
their fingerprint identification during payment. The following sampled expressions from the beneficiaries explain their frustrations with the payment system.

“Many times they come for payment, the machine disappoints us. They always say the network here is bad. I wish they would stop this machine thing and give us our money.” –Beneficiary.

During payment time, the machine refused to identify my finger print. It continuously said my fingerprint is an error. I was not paid that day. I had to travel to the district capital to fill some documents before my money was given to me. This was a total waste of my time and my little money. –Beneficiary.

When they came for payment, I couldn’t find my E-Zwich card and I was not paid that day. I don’t understand why a machine should pay me when I was not recruited by a machine. -Beneficiary.

Figure 6.5: Level of satisfaction with E-zwich payment method



6.4.6 Level of satisfaction with the duration of involvement

Generally, most beneficiaries of the programme were engaged between 61 to 90 days (37%) while about 28.4% worked for 30 to 60 days. Persons who worked for the least number of days represent 11.8%, and they worked for less than a month. About 17% of the beneficiaries also worked for

more than three months. Table 6.4 depicts the percentage share and number of days worked by beneficiaries.

Table 6.4: Number of days worked by beneficiaries

Number of days worked	Number of persons	Percentage
Less than 30	59	11.8
30-60	142	28.4
61-90	185	37
90+	114	22.8
Total	500	100

Source: Field survey, 2019

Beneficiaries did not appear to be content with the period of engagement with the GSOP-LIPW programme. 46% of them indicated they were unsatisfied and very unsatisfied with the period of engagement. On the contrary only 25% were satisfied and very satisfied. About 29% were not emphatic. They reported that they were somehow satisfied. (See Figure 6.6). In South Africa, Musekene (2010) also indicated that beneficiaries of the Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP) were not happy with the four month engagement in the public work programme. Musekene (2010) mentioned that the project could not significantly impact poverty because of the shorter duration of involvement. During the focus group discussion, the majority of the participants wish the project could engage them for the entire duration of the dry season where most of them are unemployed. Some of the expressions given by the respondents to explain their satisfaction level are stated below;

“The dry season here lasts for almost six months and this is the period that we have no work to do. I was engaged for less than three month, and I was unemployed till the rains set in. I wish such programmes will cover a period of six months so that we can be engaged throughout the year.”

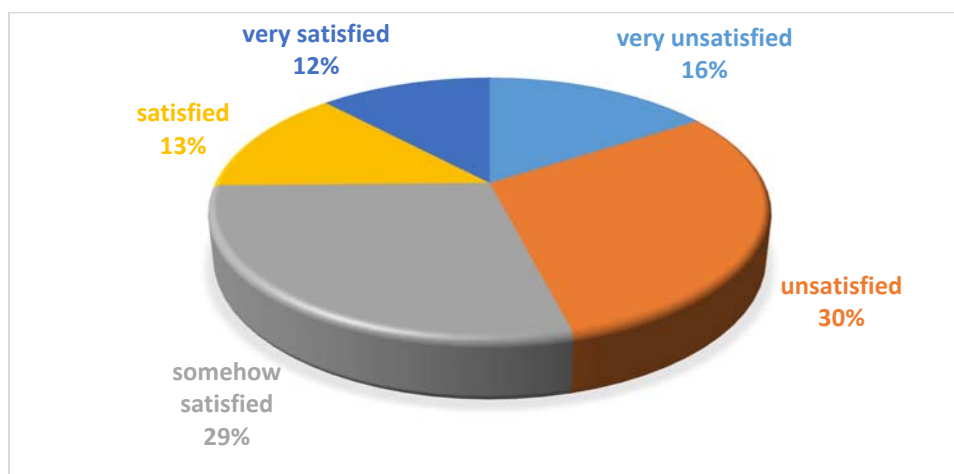
Beneficiary, Naaha

“The work is good but the time is too short. Kindly increase the duration to six months”

Beneficiary, Konzokalaa

I am satisfied with the period of engagement. Half a loaf of bread is better than none. I hope that the government brings another project next year. Beneficiary, Loggu

Figure 6.6: Level of satisfaction with the duration of involvement

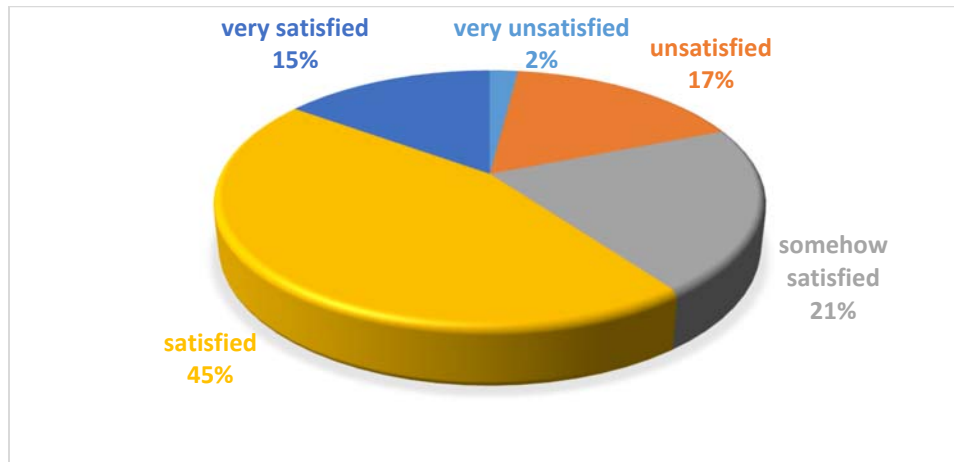


6.4.7 Level of satisfaction with the quality of the LIPW asset

Figure 6.7 depicts the level of satisfaction with the quality of assets created by the Public work programme. In Figure 6.7, 60% of the beneficiaries are either satisfied or very satisfied with the quality of the asset created while 19% are either unsatisfied or very unsatisfied. This indicates that the majority of the beneficiaries rate the quality of the asset as commendable. However, the researcher and participants of the three focus group discussions embarked upon participatory observation to observe the quality of the asset created in the communities. In all three assets in the three communities, participants agreed that the quality of the asset is fast deteriorating because of poor maintenance culture. In Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), Berhane et al (2017) made a similar revelation by stating that “roads that have been constructed have poor

technical qualities. This is because of a lack of monitoring by experts who are knowledgeable about road construction”.

Figure 6.7: Level of satisfaction with the quality of LIPW asset



6.5 Summary of chapter

The beneficiary assessment of the GSOP LIPW programme revealed that beneficiaries were satisfied with the targeting process, adequacy and flow of information and the quality of assets created by the project. However, they were unsatisfied with the amount of wage paid to them, delays in payment of wage, mode of payment and period of engagement in the GSOP-LIPW. The next chapter will assess the impact of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out migration.

CHAPTER SEVEN

IMPACT OF THE GSOP LIPW PROGRAMME ON YOUTH OUT MIGRATION IN THE DAFFIAMA BUSSIE ISSA DISTRICT

7.1 Introduction

Migration among youth is a common phenomenon in Africa (Awumbila et al., 2014; Msigwa, 2013). It is the change of residence by young people from one geographic location of origin to another geographic location with different organization of activities. Mostly, youth in Africa move from rural areas to urban centres to overcome economic difficulties of their households. In rural areas, poverty is prevalent. Young men and women do not have access to quality education and decent living opportunities as it exists in urban centres (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2005).

The history of youth out-migration in Ghana reveals an interesting scenario. Anarfi et al (2003) indicate that the Northern zone of Ghana has been the region with a high incidence of youth out-migration. It all started when the British colonial government established mining centres in the southern part of Ghana in 1897. Before 1927, the British government operated a recruitment module where young people from the north were arrested and forcibly enlisted as labourers in mining centres. After these labourers have worked for some years, the government allows them to travel back to the north. These returnees go back with some possessions and stories that entice other vulnerable youths to voluntarily embark on south migration. (Lentz & Erlmann, 1986). In the course of time, these new migrants diversified to seek opportunities in less risky sectors like the cocoa industry where wages and working conditions were better. Subsequently, north-south migration became common as a social protection mechanism for poor households in the north (ibid, 1986).

During the 1980s, the inflow of young migrants from the north to the south slowed down and eventually declined. According to Anarfi et al (2003), this was due to the economic hardship as a result of Ghana's participation in the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP). SAP was an economic recovery programme by the International Monetary Fund to assist debt ridden developing countries to sail on the path of sustained economic growth. Anarfi et al (2003) reported that so many workers were retrenched and many businesses were closed. This led many northerners to return to their where they came from.

However, recent statistics from the 2010 Ghana Population and Housing Census reveal an upsurge in north south migration. A total number of 1,014,952 (387% increase over the figure in the 1980s) people born in the northern part of Ghana with the majority of them belonging to the youthful age have migrated to the south (GSS, 2014; Van der Geest, 2011). Some studies have attributed this new movement to environmental and poverty related causes. In the view of Adaawen and Owusu (2013), youth in the rural north mostly migrate to the urban towns in Greater Accra and the Ashanti Region to look for Greener pastures. It has also been mentioned that the northern regions have only one rainy season as compared to the south that has two. The youth therefore migrate from November to May, the period of high economic shock as a result of no rainfall (Pickbourn, 2018). This view is corroborated by Luginaah et al, (2009) who also mentioned that migrant farmers from the Upper West Region in the north settled in Techiman in the southern part of Ghana have no intention of returning because they see the lands in the south as more fertile and productive than those in the north.

The impact of the north-south migration in recent times has been very disturbing. There is an emerging situation where young girls quit schooling and leave their families behind in a search for

money to remit their families up north. These girls are mostly engaged as head porters in major market centres in Accra and Kumasi. (Awumbila et al., 2011). Kwankye et al (2009) reports that these girls most often suffer from verbal, physical and sexual abuses. They live in slums with poor nutrition, lack proper health care, education, sanitation and accommodation. Anarfi, (1993) has also mentioned that these girls sometimes contract diseases like HIV/AIDS and subsequently spread it in the north when they return.

The huge concentration of youth in major cities like Accra, Kumasi, Takoradi and Koforidua have also been blamed on the large inflow of northern migrants to the south. This has contributed to the huge slum population in Ghana. According to the Ghana News Agency (GNA, 2012), the slum population in Ghana increased from 4.1 million in 2001 to 5.5 million in 2008. This puts tremendous pressure on the already poor social amenities in the slumps thereby worsening living conditions and perpetuating poverty (Owusu et al., 2008).

In an earlier study conducted in Ghana on GSOP LIPW programme, Amoah and Eshun (2013) indicated that the Ghana LIPW has a potential of reducing rural urban migration. 88.5% of respondent indicated that they will stay and work in their respective communities if the project offer them jobs every dry season. This current study sought to investigate whether the youth in the northern savanna zone are staying and working in their respective communities since the creation of dams and dugouts using labour intensive methods. Challenges facing the youth as regard to the usage of the dams and dugout are also discussed.

7.2 Characteristics of the migrants

The study revealed that a total of 106 youth comprising 67 (63.2%) females and 39 (36.8%) males migrated from both treatment communities and controlled communities during the last dry season

(see Table 7.1). This is an indication that more females embark on seasonal migration than males in rural north. This finding supports the assertion made by Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) that migration is becoming more feminized. Feminization of migration is a concept that generally means that the rate of increase in women who are moving out of their home towns to settle in other places outnumber that of men (Schrover and Moloney, 2013). In poor communities, this phenomenon is attributed to the increasing number of men who are unable to perform their traditional role of taking care of their families. This tendency exerted a lot of pressure on women to seek alternative survival strategies and as a consequence move to other urban places where they can sell their labour (Paiewonsky, 2009). Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) explained that many young women and girls move independent of their families from rural agricultural communities in the north to urban centers in the south, where they are mostly employed in unskilled occupations like domestic and care work, hotel and catering services, and the entertainment and sex industry.

Table 7.1: Total number of migrant by community type and gender

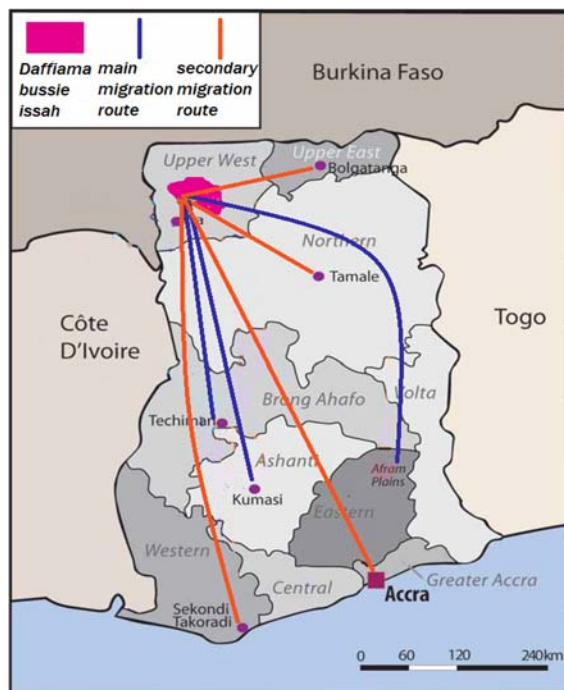
Type of Community	Number of migrants		Total
	Male	Female	
Treatment communities	21	40	61
Controlled communities	18	27	45
Total	39	67	106

7.3 Migrant destination

It was also observed that the majority (69%) of migrants from the six study communities migrate to rural farming communities in the south while 31% settle in urban centres. The main destinations for migrants from the Dafiama-Bussie-Issa district are Brong Ahafo (53%), Ashanti (22%) and Eastern (8%) regions (see Figure 1). This finding supports earlier findings made by Van de Geest

(2009) that more than half of migrants from the Upper West Region settled in the Southern part of Ghana are in the Brong Ahafo region. In a subsequent study by Van de Geest (2011) to understand the motive of movement, he revealed that migrant farmers from the Upper West region settle in the Brong Ahafo region because the later has an abundance and a fertile land than that of theirs which is characterized by scarcity and infertility. This view is collaborated by Luginaah et al, (2009:15) who also mentioned that migrant farmers from the Upper West region settled in Techiman in the southern part of Ghana have no intention of returning. They see the lands in the south as more fertile and productive than those in the north. Pickbourn (2018) also mentioned that these destination areas are known to have favourable climatic conditions involving two reliable rainy seasons and a conducive temperature.

Figure 7.1: Map of Ghana Showing main and secondary migration route of migrant from Daffiama Bussie Issah district

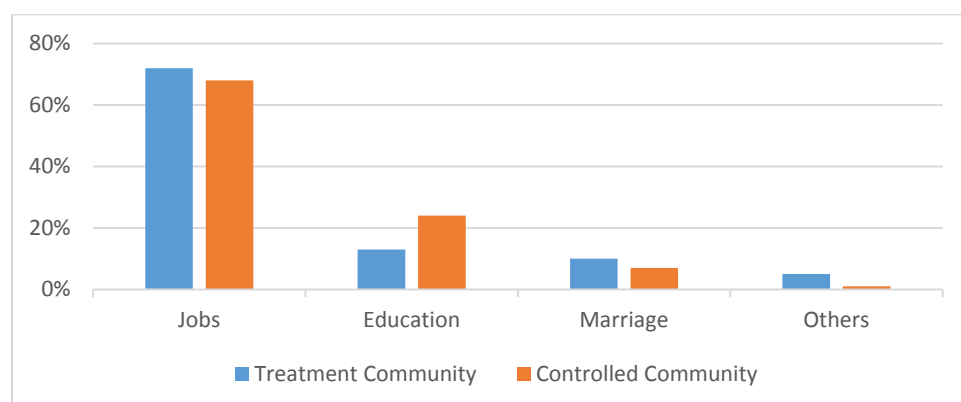


7.4 Reasons for migrating

In trying to understand the reasons why youth migrate from their communities in the dry season, I asked household heads why their young ones migrated. (See Figure 7.2). In treatment Communities, 72% of the migrants moved to seek employment opportunities. 13% moved to seek education while 10% also moved to join their spouses in other communities. Similarly, in controlled communities, 68% of young migrants moved in search of a job. 24% moved to pursue higher education while 7% relocated to join their spouses. Consequently, the quest to seek employment is the major reason why youth in treatment communities and controlled communities move from their respective communities.

Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) revealed that the underlying cause of movement by young people from the north to the south is poverty and inadequate job opportunities. But Plange (1976) has since long maintained that youth migration from the north to the south was engineered by the colonial capitalist government, who deliberately underdeveloped the north by neglecting it and designating it as a labour recruitment zone to feed the mines and cocoa sector in the south. For this, major development infrastructure that are appealing to the youth are located in the south of Ghana. This has resulted in a huge infrastructure gap favouring the south. Also, most educational facilities in the country are located in the southern part of Ghana. Youth who aspire to attain higher education must travel to the south to obtain the best of education (Amankwa-Mensah, 2016).

Figure 7.2: Reasons for migrating out of community in treatment and controlled communities



7.5 Impact of the Labour Intensive Public Work (LIPW) asset on migration

In treatment communities, a total of 61 youth (an average of 0.26 migrants per household) migrated out while 45 youth (an average of 0.24 migrant per household) migrated from the controlled communities. I therefore proceeded to inquire whether there is a significant difference in the number of youth outmigration per household in beneficiary and non-beneficiary communities using analysis of variance (ANOVA) (See Table 7.2). The significant value of 0.684 which is greater than 0.05 suggests that there is no significant difference between the number of youth outmigration per household in beneficiary communities and non-beneficiary communities. This because it suggests that more youth migrated out of the treatment communities than the controlled communities. Therefore, it can be concluded that the assets created by the LIPW project have not had any effect on youth outmigration in the district.

Table 7.2: Anova test on number of youth migrated per household

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.031	1	.031	.166	.684
Within Groups	79.717	426	.187		
Total	79.748	427			

This result is not surprising to me. A visit to the various beneficiary communities revealed that only one dugout (at Bussie) is being utilized for dry season farming. The dugout in Wogu and Tabiesi were all lying idle. It was mostly livestock like cows, sheep and goats that occasionally came around to drink water. At bussie, I recorded only 12 households out of the 420 households being engaged in dry season farming. This woeful underutilization of the dugouts is worrying considering the huge amount of resources invested in creating these dugouts. In a study conducted in an adjacent district to assess the utilization of irrigation facilities, similar results were reported. Naaderi and Dinye (2017) revealed that out of the five dams and dugouts investigated in the Nadowli-Kaleo district, only one is partially used for crop irrigation.

In other studies, outside Ghana on the impact of LIPW programmes on migration, there has been mixed results. While some suggest a positive impact of reduced migration in rural communities, others claim a negative impact of increase in rural urban migration. The Mahatma Ghandi Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGREGA) in India is the most researched in terms of its linkage to migration. The programme offers an employment guarantee of 100 days for rural folks. Jacob (2008) indicated that the wage provided by the MGREGA programme was lower than the wage that migrants received at their destination centre. In this sense, people being rational and trying to make the best out of available options opt for migration. Study results from China also reveal an interesting scenario. The Chinese LIPW programme dubbed Yigong-Daizhen was reported to have

increased migration. Chau et al (2014) mentioned that the poor unskilled labour had some money from the public work programme to complement their own income and in effect cater for their expenses in moving to the urban towns. Also in villages where road infrastructure was improved and enabled easy connectivity and access to nearby towns through the public work programme, people tend to migrate more often.

However, the results for poor, vulnerable and landless women were quite the opposite. Papp (2012) reports that the Indian LIPW provided an important safety net for women and thus reduced rural urban migration. Jacob (2008) also mentioned that in communities where wages offered by the LIPW was lower than the expected wage in urban centres, most women still preferred to stay in their respective communities because LIPW provided them a reliable and steady income which seems to be better as compared to the uncertainties in migration to an unknown place in the city. Jacob (2008) further mentioned that in communities where programmes turn to focus on soil fertility and irrigation, migration reduced because of the likely positive impact of the project on people's livelihood.

7.6 Diagnosing the challenges facing the use of the dugouts

The neoclassical theory of migration contends that individuals migrate to other areas because they perceive that their place of destination have more economic benefits than their place of origin, and would most likely not migrate if their place of origin happens to be better off (Massey et al., 1993:435). However, although the GSOP LIPW programme's dugouts were intended to create a new economic activity that would attract the youth to stay in their place of origin, this study has revealed that it has no impact on migration among the youth. Implying that the economic benefit of the programme is still lower than the economic benefit of migrating to other areas for jobs. The

Participatory Learning for Action (PLA) sessions organized in the three Treatment communities revealed three key challenges facing the utilization of the dugouts by the youth in the various communities and as a result, led to the migration. These challenges were categorized as biophysical constraints, land allocation problems and financial constraints. I used pair-wise ranking to determine the most important challenge according to their severity among males and females. (See Table 7.3)

Table 7.3: Ranking of challenges facing the use of dugouts by youth

Community	Gender	Biophysical constraints	Land Allocation problems	Financial constraints
Bussie	Male	1	3	2
	Female	3	2	1
Wogu	Male	2	3	1
	Female	2	3	1
Tabiesi	Male	2	3	2
	Female	3	2	1

7.6.1 Biophysical constraints

For farmers to be able to farm throughout the dry season, they need constant supply of water. Meanwhile, the water in the dugouts diminishes as the dry season progresses. There is always an abundance of water from November to January, but in February onwards, the water diminishes and completely dries up in May (See Figure 7.3). During this period, temperature could be as high as 45C⁰ causing more evaporation of water bodies. A young man in Wogu community mention that;

“After the construction of the dugout, I started farming cabbage. I thought I will get enough water till harvesting. The variety of cabbage I planted matured in three to four months. Getting to the

time of maturity of my crops, I struggled a lot with having enough water to irrigate the farm. Finally, I had a very poor yield and I did not venture farming along the dugout again.” -33 year old man, Wogu

Figure 7.3: Drying up of Tabiesi community dugout



The youth further mentioned that, dry season vegetable farming was plagued with pests and diseases as compared to the rainy season. They needed to purchase more expensive chemicals to protect the farm or lose a significant margin of profit as a result of poor yield. Birds and fowls are also reported to be destroying crops because they mostly lack food in the dry season and hence relied on irrigated crops as their main food item. Figure 7.4 is a picture of a vegetable garden destroyed by pest and diseases at Wogu

Figure 7.4: A damaged vegetable garden in Wogu



At Bussie, males ranked biophysical constraints as their topmost challenge while females ranked it as 3rd. At Wogu, both males and females perceive biophysical constraints as their 2nd challenge. Males at Tabiesi ranked biophysical constraints as their 2nd challenge while their female counterpart ranked it as 3rd. This is an indication that more males perceive biophysical constraints as a major challenge than females.

7.6.2 Land allocation problems

Lands in the study communities were owned by families and transferred mostly by inheritance. Access to a particular land mostly depends on membership in that family. Therefore, only the family members who had lands closer to the dugout tend to benefit much from it. The youth are marginalized in terms of its allocation. It was observed that decisions on the allocation of land to people are made by the elders without any sort of consultation with the youth. The elderly people tend to share the lands among themselves leaving the youth with little or nothing. This finding agrees with earlier observation made by UN-Habitat (2012) that, the introduction of irrigation in

previously rain-fed farmlands, or when roads are built to link farmers to markets, the new economic potential of the land makes it more attractive. Consequently, small-scale producers may lose their lands to more affluent or powerful interests.

Young women turn to be more disadvantaged in land allocation and thus ranked it as a priority problem than young men. At Bussie, females ranked the land allocation problem as 2nd most important while males ranked it as 3rd. Both females and males in Wogu had the same rating for land allocation problems. Females in Tabiesi ranked land allocation problems as 2nd while their male counterparts ranked it as 3rd. This result is due to the social structure in the study communities. All the three communities operate a patrilineal system of inheritance where males inherit lands from their parents. During the PLA sessions, the young women complained that the community regarded them as inferior to men. The young men also indicated that they were superior to the females.

7.6.3 Financial constraints

The youth bemoan lack of capital as militating against their quest to utilize the dugouts to improve their livelihood. They explained that they do not have the financial resources to purchase complementary irrigation equipment like pipes and pumps; and other inputs like fertilizer, chemicals and drought resistance seeds. They also explained that getting a loan from the bank was difficult for them. The banks have a higher interest rate and normally require collateral before loans are granted. A young lady from Bussie explains that;

“We are beginners in life and we do not owe any asset yet. Meanwhile, the banks will insist that we come with collateral before we are giving cash. If the government is actually interested in our welfare, they will not just put up a dugout without providing the necessary inputs required for the

cultivation of crops by the youth. A dugout alone cannot farm. We need tools, we need training and we need supervision.” - 27-year-old woman, Bussie

This sentiment is shared by the Food and Agriculture organization (FAO). They contend that it is unrealistic to expect that rural youth purchase farm inputs like land and irrigation equipment through acquired savings, given the high rate of youth unemployment, low wages for rural youth and high prices of capital inputs in rural communities. They further stated that the challenge is often greater for young women since they are engaged mostly in unremunerated household work or subsist on low wages (FOA, 2011).

Young women in all the three communities ranked financial constraints as their topmost challenge to the utilization of the dugouts for dry season farming. At Bussie and Tabiesi, the young men ranked financial constraints as 2nd while those at Wogu ranked it as 1st. This is an indication that young women perceive financial constraints as a major challenge than men. This finding agrees with earlier studies conducted by Macha (2002). He reported that women in Africa generally face major difficulties in getting access to credit and other forms of financial assistance. He explained that although men also experience similar challenges, financial institutions seldom consider women when allocating funds for loans. Most women do not qualify because they either lack collateral or have very small businesses.

7.7 Homegrown strategies to ensure maximum utilization of dugouts

During the PLA sessions, the youth identified some potential benefits that will accrue to them if they efficiently utilize the dugouts. They acknowledged that utilizing the dugouts for productive purposes could actually reduce youth unemployment and the rate at which young people leave the community during the dry season. They explained that although some migrants come with cash

and purchase farming inputs for the rainy season farming, they do so at an opportunity cost. Children, the aged and the sick ones are left alone without proper care from family members. The youth understood that farming in the dry season could boost their food supply and reduce incidence of malnutrition which is mostly visible in stunted growth especially among children in the communities. Some youth explained that they were always demoralized, unhappy and feel worthless during the dry season due to its associated unemployment in the community. Therefore, engaging in irrigation farming could make them happy and escape from the psychological problems associated with demoralization and low self-esteem. The youth, with the assistance of the community leaders present at the PLA sessions and I identified some home grown solutions that could solve the problems militating against the use of the dugouts for dry season farming. These strategies are, formation of a community committee to oversee dry season farming and the formation of Village Savings and Loans Association (VSLA) among the youth.

The dry season farming committee could be responsible for overseeing the management of the dugout and the equitable allocation of lands to the youth and other members of the community for dry season farming. The committee could ensure that the dugout is well maintained to store maximum quantities of water during the rainy season. They could do this by checking leakages and mobilizing community members to conduct regular desilting of the dugout. The committee could also be responsible for ensuring that the youth acquire the necessary skills and technology needed for dry season irrigation farming. In proposing members for the committee, the various PLA sessions agreed on the following personalities; the District Community Development Officer, District Agriculture Extension Officer, Assembly Member (elected community representative to the local authority), Chief of the community, two women nominated by women in the community, and two youth nominated by the youth. The youth urged their chiefs to spearhead the formation of

this committee. It is anticipated that the composition of the committee will ensure that the youth and other vulnerable members of the community interested in dry season farming are given a fair share of land to farm. Akrofi (2017) reported the effectiveness of a community committee in dry season farming. He mentioned that the formation of the Land Allocation Committee (LAC) in the Bare community irrigation project eliminated the problems that had to do with biases in land allocation. Women and other vulnerable groups were given a fair share of land to embark on dry season irrigation farming.

In all three communities, the youth acknowledged the existence of a Village Savings and Loan Association (VSLA). They revealed that a local Non-Governmental Organization (NGO) sensitized them on the need to form such an association. They explained that this association was made up of a group of people who have come together to save and take small loans from their savings. The association was mostly made up of 15 to 25 members who self-select themselves. The activities of the group are run in cycles of one year, after which the accumulated savings and the loans' profit were distributed back to members. Such a group meets weekly and saves through the purchase of shares. The price per share is determined by the group at the beginning of the cycle. At each meeting, each member was obliged to purchase between one to five shares. Members are entitled to borrow up to three times their individual savings and must pay over a period of three months.

The researcher identified four VSLA at Bussie, two at Wogu and one at Tabiesi. These associations were made up of only women with only two participants of PLA sessions as a member. The youth realized that they could form such groups among themselves. This could enable them to save toward the dry season and be able to purchase inputs needed for dry season farming. Evidence on

the effectiveness of VSLA on rural people is encouraging. In a study to investigate the effect of introducing VSLA among rural residents in Malawi, Ksoll et al. (2013) reported that most households were able to increase investment in agriculture and this consequently resulted in improved food security and a strengthened household income.

7.8 Summary of chapter

The GSOP LIPW built dugouts have a huge potential of reducing youth outmigration in Ghana. These dugouts can be utilized for dry season farming to engage the youth from November to May, the period of high labour demand shortfall in the north due to no rainfall. However, these dugouts are confronted with serious challenges which have led to underutilization of the dugouts by the youth and hence having no significant impact on north south migration. Some of the challenges raised by the youth include, inability to mobilize funds for dry season farming, drying up of the dugouts and difficulty in accessing land close to the dugout. Through a Participatory Learning for Action (PLA) session organized, the youth realize that they could form an inclusive community committee to oversee dry season farming in order to address some of their challenges. They also acknowledge that forming VSLA could also help in mobilizing capital to purchase inputs for dry season irrigation farming. It is therefore recommended that future LIPW programmes incorporate skill training for beneficiaries and ensure that beneficiary communities are assisted with complementary tools in order to effectively utilize the facilities provided.

CHAPTER EIGHT

**REDUCING POVERTY AMONG YOUTH WITH LABOUR INTENSIVE PUBLIC
WORK (LIPW) PROGRAMME: EVIDENCE FROM THE DAFFIAMA BUSSIE ISSA
DISTRICT IN GHANA**

8.1 Introduction

This chapter entails a discussion on how the GSOP LIPW is reducing poverty among the youth in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District. First of all, I will explain how poverty is understood and contextualized by the youth in the district. The chapter will compare income levels, food consumption, farm sizes and livestock sizes of beneficiaries of the LIPW and non-beneficiaries of the LIPW programme.

8.2 Poverty: Meanings and perceptions by the youth in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District

In an attempt to define poverty, there have been several streams of ideas which are being debated among scholars across the world. The debate has been centred on the diversity of ways in which poverty is perceived and experienced by people, the diversity of methods employed to measure poverty, and the coping strategies adopted by people in poverty situations (Osmani, 2003). It is therefore prudent for researchers into poverty to appreciate these diversities in defining poverty and identify with a definition in any poverty survey (ibid, 2003).

The World Bank defines poverty in absolute terms using of the International Poverty Line (IPL). IPL is the minimum level of income deemed adequate for expenditure on basic needs. In 2015, the World Bank pegged the IPL at \$1.95 per day (World Bank, 2018). This figure represents the minimal amount on which a person can meet his or her basic needs in a day. People who spend below this amount are considered to be extremely poor. With this definition of poverty, the World

Bank estimates that over 1 billion people worldwide live in poverty, with about 80% living in Sub Saharan Africa and South Asia (ibid, 2018). This methodology used by the World Bank, although accepted by many, has received many criticisms. Rowson (2001) maintains that the use of absolute figures does not take into consideration the living differentials within and between countries. Rowson (2001) argues that the set of basic need items that \$1 can purchase in a rural community will be different from the set of items purchased with the same amount in an urban place. Also between countries, prices of basic need items differ. Rowson (2001) further indicated that, most people in rural communities grow and rear their own crops and animals for consumption. They mostly do not buy items from the market. Therefore computing poverty figures based on prices of items in the market becomes problematic.

On the other hand, the United Nations (1998) explain that poverty is

“a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to; not having the land on which to grow one’s food or a job to earn one’s living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation”

This definition by the UN is a shift from the emphasis on the income dimension of poverty as espoused by the World Bank. It rather describes the situations referred to as being in a state of poverty. Thus, to have inadequate food, to be uneducated, and to lack access to basic health care. However, it is important to mention that income is a critical factor in obtaining such basic necessities. Therefore the basic idea derived from the World Bank and the UN interpretation of

poverty is that the definition of poverty should take into consideration some social standards as well as income. We should also be mindful that poverty will always depend on what people in a particular geo-political space at a particular point in time perceive as poor.

The focus group discussions in both treatment communities and controlled communities revealed that the youth perceive poverty in several dimensions. Paramount among them is lack of money, poor diet, sickness, and being a resident in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District.

Most of the youth have had one or more experience with lack of money. For example one young lady mentioned that;

“When you don’t have money to buy basic necessities for yourself and your family, then you are a poor person. In this community, we cherish money. If you don’t have money, children will even not respect you”. Female, 28 years old.

Yet another participant stated as follows;

“Poverty is when your pocket is dry and you have no money to buy what you want. Have you noticed the sandals I am wearing? They are not in good shape. I would like to change them but I don’t have the money to do so... Poverty is shame”. – Male, 35 years.

The youth generally believe that lack of money has contributed to people eating low quality food with no nutritional value. One young woman mentioned that;

“You can easily detect a poor person. As we sit here, we are all poor. A poor person has no money to buy good food, we eat Kapala (a local staple prepared with yam) every day with small or no meat. That is why we are not strong. We are all sick”. – Female, 33 years old.

Some of the youth attached a geographical description to poverty. They mentioned that, being a resident of the Daffiama Bussie District means one is poor.

Look around here, there is no sustainable job. We have only one rainy season. When the rain is gone, we are all left unemployed. When you look around you can just see poverty. The trees are dry and the wind is hot. All the forces of nature are against us.- Male, 21 years old.

The difference between the poor and those who are a little better off also involves the ownership of certain assets, such as farm size and livestock size. A young lady mentioned that;

In this community, we are all farmers. You can know who is poorer when you observe our farm sizes and the size of our livestock. The poor have no money to farm on a large land, they normally farm less than halve an acre. Most of them too have few or no animals. – Female 23 years old.

Yet another young man also indicated that;

If my farm is big, it means I have more money. If it is small, then you know I am a very poor man. Big farm means a big harvest. And I will cash in more money when I send my produce to the market.- Male, 27 years old.

The youth said that one could even determine who was poor by the look of the buildings in the area.

Look around this community and observe the type of materials used to roof the houses. Those houses roofed with thatch means the occupants are poorer, those roofed with zinc means the occupants are a little better. Zinc is expensive and the poorest among us cannot afford. When you enter most of the houses, you will see that those roofed with thatched have no cement floor. Those with zinc have cement floors.- Male, 19 years.

Despite the general belief that poverty has to do with deprivation and lack of money to meet basic needs, some of the youth indicated they were not poor even though they have no money.

“I don’t think I am poor. Even though I earn less, my god has provided me with a sleeping place. Others did not wake up today. They died and I am alive. I think poverty is death. If you have life and god, you have everything”. – Female 24 years old.

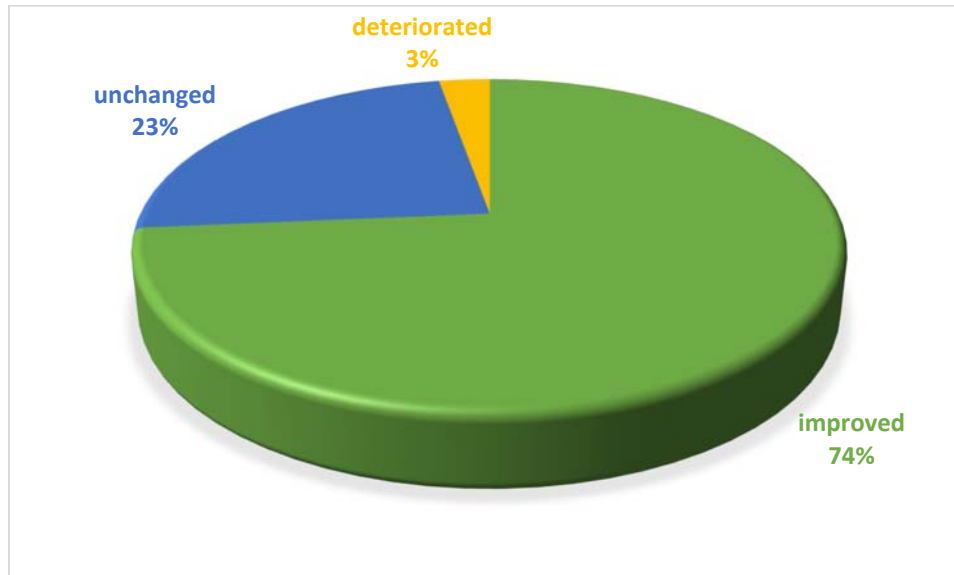
These views by the youth suggest that poverty is a situation where people have insufficient income to purchase basic necessities in life. The inadequacy of money in this case amounts to serious discomfort which in turn negatively affects people’s self-esteem. This shows the relative importance of income level to young people's understanding of the dimensions of poverty.

In the next sections I will discuss how the GSOP LIPW programme has contributed to reducing poverty among the youth in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District.

8.3 Beneficiaries’ perception on the impact of the GSOP LIPW on their welfare

Respondents were asked to indicate whether the project has improved their living condition. Figure 8.1 depicts beneficiaries’ perception on the impact of the project on their lives. 74% of the respondents indicated that the project has improved their living conditions. 23% indicated that their lives remain unchanged while 3% surprisingly perceive the project has deteriorated their lives. These figures suggest that the majority of the beneficiary youth agree that the project has improved their lives.

Figure 8.1: Beneficiaries perception on the effect of LIPW on their lives



8.4 Impact of GSOP LIPW on youth poverty

Quantitatively, the impact of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth poverty were measured using four key indicators. They are, Tropical Livestock Unit (TLU), monthly income, food consumption per day and farm sizes owned by the youth (see Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Group statistics of poverty indicators

	Name of community	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Tropical Livestock Unit	Treatment	90	.1201	.22234
	Controlled	90	.0671	.12475
Food consumption per day	Treatment	90	3.1156	.95187
	Controlled	90	2.6689	1.59442
Income	Treatment	90	132.9333	30.43054
	Controlled	90	106.9778	43.38490
Farm size	Treatment	90	1.7889	1.69927
	Controlled	90	1.2111	1.14406

8.4.1 Livestock holding

Livestock sizes owned by the youth were measured in Tropical Livestock Unit (TLU). TLU is a metric developed by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO, 2003), which allows for the combination of multiple species of livestock into a weighted measure representing total body weight and potentially market value. A single animal weighing 250kg represents a single TLU, providing weighting factors of 0.7 for cattle, 0.1 for sheep, 0.2 for pig, 0.1 for goats, and 0.01 for chicken.

Common livestock owned by the youth in both treatment communities and controlled communities include, goat, sheep, pig and fowl. Beneficiary youth of the LIPW programme recorded a mean livestock holding of 0.12 TLU while the non-beneficiaries recorded 0.07 TLU (See Table 2). In demonstrative terms, each beneficiary of the LIPW has an equivalent of 12 poultry birds while the non-beneficiaries have 7. This represents a difference of 44.1%. The implication of this is that the LIPW programme assisted youth in beneficiary communities to increase their livestock size by approximately two folds.

The qualitative information obtained from the field also confirmed that youth in treatment communities had actually increased their livestock. According to the beneficiary youths, Officers of the District Assembly advised them to invest their monies into livestock, so that the benefit of the project will be felt for a longer time. The following are some testimonies given by the youth;

“I joined the manual work because I had no work to do at that period. The work engaged me for three months and some days, and I earned close to GH¢ 500 after the work. Before the start of the work, the officials from the District Assembly advised us to invest our monies so that the impact of the work will be felt for a longer period. I took that advice. I bought a female sheep and a female

goat. I also purchased three female fowls. Now my sheep and goats have multiplied. Now, I can count three sheep and five goats. I also have 7 fowls and they have been laying eggs for me. Any time I need money to buy food items I don't have, I sell some of my animals during market days so I can purchase them. I am actually happy that this manual work came to our community. I thank the Government.

"I am a Junior High School graduate. I could not continue to Senior High School because my parents had no money. I had wanted to study Agriculture at the Senior High School because my best result in the Junior High School certificate examination was in Agriculture. When the LIPW came to our community, I was selected as a beneficiary. By the end of the construction, I had earned about GH¢350. I used part of the money to build a pen. My uncle had earlier promised to gift me a female pig as big as my size. True to his words, he gave me the pig but unfortunately, it was not as big as me. I kept the pig in my pen and fed it for some time. Gradually it was growing big like me. The pig delivered 6 piglet and they are all growing well. Although I am not reading Agriculture, I am practicing Agriculture. I hope to sell some of these pigs soon and use the proceeds to expand my business." Female beneficiary- 21 years

This finding is in support of earlier assertions made by Hartwig (2013) on the Rwandan LIPW programme. Hartwig revealed that beneficiary households were able to increase their livestock holdings by roughly one goat in the short run. Debela and Holden (2014) also reported an increase in livestock holdings of beneficiaries of the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) in Ethiopia. By the use of an econometric model, they concluded that beneficiary households showed a significantly larger average increase in livestock holding of 2.68-2.69 TLU than non-beneficiaries.

With this increase in livestock holdings by beneficiaries of the GSOP LIPW programme in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District, it could be anticipated that the beneficiaries could gradually move out of poverty. However, results from Hartwig (2013) on the long term impact of the VUP on beneficiaries quell this hope. Hartwig (2013) mentioned that beneficiary households reverted to livestock holdings similar to that of the non-beneficiaries in the long run. Some information obtained from the field suggests that this trend as reported by Hartwig could repeat among beneficiaries of the GSOP LIPW programme. Some of the youth indicated that they have been selling off their livestock to cater for their daily needs without replenishing it. Below are some statements made by the youth from treatment communities.

“I also bought animals to rear. But unfortunately for me, my mother felt sick and we needed money to take care of her. Although she has health insurance, her sickness was not covered by the insurance scheme so I sold my animals to assist in paying her bills. After spending all my money on her, she still died. Now I am back to nothing”. - Male, 24 years old.

“I sold all my birds because I needed money to learn a trade” – Female, 21 years old.

8.4.2 Monthly income

Youth in treatment communities recorded an average monthly income of GH¢132.93 (\$26.6) while the controlled communities recorded an average monthly income of GH¢106.98 (\$21.4) which is translated to mean \$0.89 a day for beneficiaries and \$0.71 a day for non-beneficiaries. This represents an increase of 19.7% in income for the beneficiaries of the project. Although this suggests that the project has increased earnings in treatment communities, it cannot be said that youth in treatment communities are out of poverty. This is because both communities fall below the income poverty line of \$1.95 per day.

In the Liberian Cash for Work Temporary Employment Programme (CfWTE), Subbarao et al (2013) reported a similar result. They indicated that, while beneficiaries of the programme were still poor after the programme, there had been an increase in income among beneficiaries by 21%. Devereux et al. (2008) also found that the impact on incomes of beneficiaries of the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) has been positive. However, the studies found no statistically significant difference in income growth between beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries

8.4.3 Per capita food consumption

The United Nations envision a world where people will be food secure and live without hunger. The World Food Summit in 1996 defined food security as “a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious foods that meet their dietary needs and food preferences for healthy life” (Barret, 2010). Although food production worldwide has increased in several folds in recent times, several people live for several days without food. It is estimated that about 821 million people worldwide (approximately one out of nine people) are undernourished (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO. 2018). The effect of hunger and malnutrition manifest in several spheres. The World Bank (1986:4) maintain that, “inadequate diets increase vulnerability to disease and parasites. They reduce strength for tasks requiring physical effort. They curtail the benefit from schooling and training programs. And they result in a general lack of vigor, alertness, and vitality. These outcomes reduce the productivity of people in the short and long terms, sacrifice output and income, and make it more difficult for families and nations to escape the cycle of poverty”

On the average, youth in beneficiary communities spend GH¢3.40 on food per day while that of the non-beneficiaries spend GH¢2.70. This indicates that beneficiaries of the LIPW programme

are able to increase their expenditure on food consumption by 12.9%. Unfortunately, this result does not actually tell the quality of food consumed by the youth. In order to obtain an indication on the quality of the food consumed, I asked the respondents to indicate whether they have consumed proteins in the last three days. Figure 8.2 indicates that 73 beneficiaries represented by 81.1% said they have consumed protein in the last three days. In non-beneficiary communities, a lesser percentage of 56.7% said they consumed protein during the same period.

According to Mozdalifa (2012), poverty and food insecurity are both the cause and consequence of each other. Therefore an improvement in food security will mean a reduction in poverty levels. During the focus group interviews, participants gave some testimonies to the effect that they have more food now as compared to the period before the LIPW programme. Below is a testimony given by one beneficiary of the project;

...I have a wife with three children. Although I don't earn a lot of money, I make sure I feed them each day. Before the LIPW, I couldn't confidently say this. As I said earlier, my fowls have been laying eggs for me. Every Sunday evening, my wife fry some of the eggs for us to enjoy.``- Male respondent (29 years old)

A conversation with AA, a 35-year-old beneficiary of the LIPW project also gave an indication that the food situation in the beneficiary communities has changed for the better.

Researcher: what work do you do?

AA: I am a fishmonger. I feed this community with fish.

Researcher: How did you start this business?

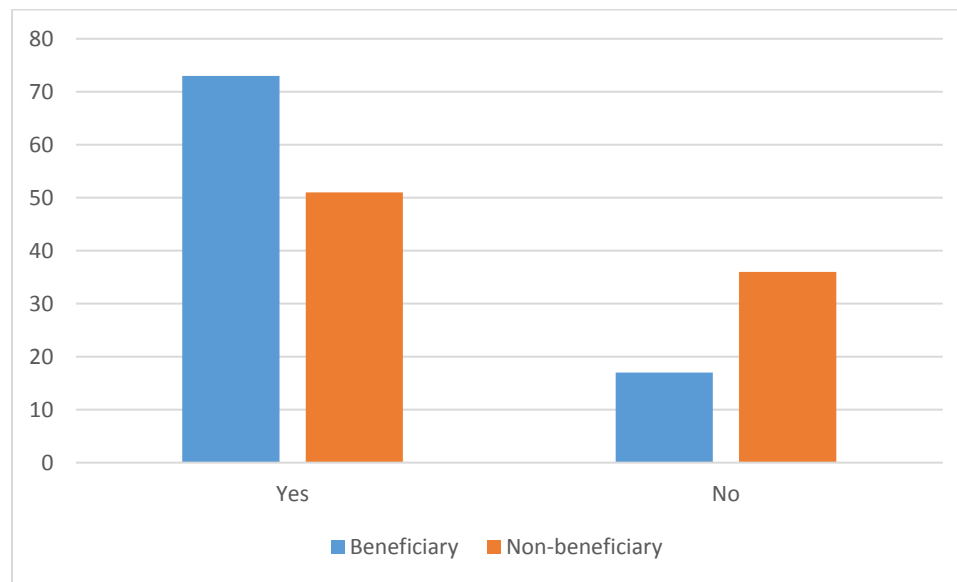
AA: After the construction of the LIPW programme, I had some money to buy a second hand deep freezer. I also used part of the money to purchase fresh fish from Wa to store in my fridge and I have been selling ever since.

Researcher: How is business?

AA: business is very good. When I started it was difficult, I couldn't even sell half a box in a week. Now I am able to sell two boxes and sometimes I sell more in a week.

This result is partly in agreement with earlier findings made by Hartwig (2014). Hartwig revealed that the Rwandan VUP was able to increase per capita food consumption in beneficiary households by 22%. However, He indicated that there was no significant difference in protein consumption between beneficiary households and non-beneficiary households. In Ghana, the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2014) indicates that individuals who spend less than GH¢3.60 on food per day are considered to be poor. Therefore, although there has been an increase in the value of food consumption in the beneficiary communities, they are still poor because they do not meet the poverty threshold for food consumption.

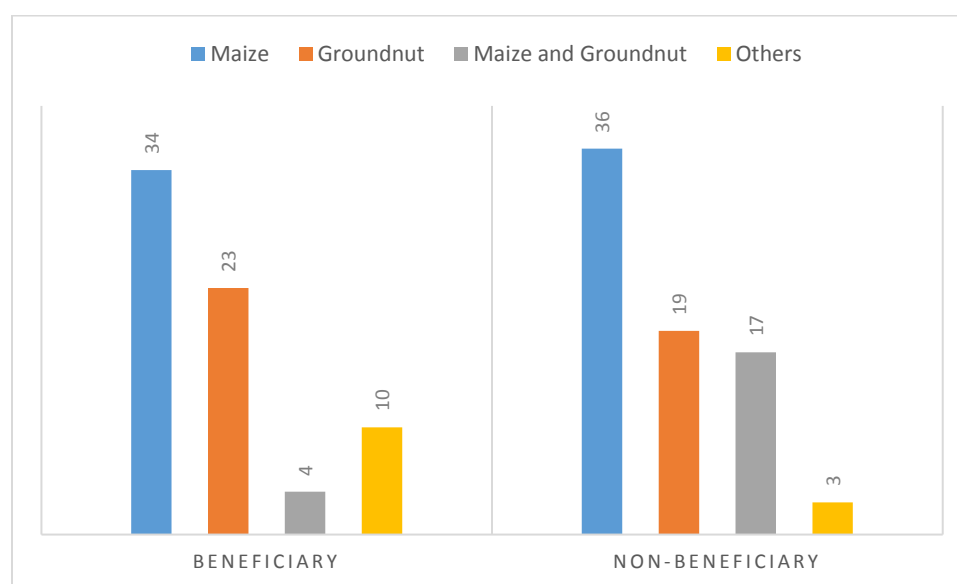
Figure 8.2: Number of people consuming protein in the last three days



8.4.4 Farm size

According to Fan and Chan-Kang ((2005), there is a positive relationship between farm size and reduction in poverty. People with a larger farm size are likely to be richer than those with smaller farm sizes. I therefore compared the farm sizes of beneficiary youth and the non-beneficiaries. I asked Youth in both communities to indicate the size of crop farm they cultivated during the last farming season. To enable me to make a comparative analysis of the two type of farms, I also looked at the type of crops cultivated by the youth in both communities (see Figure 8.3). It is worthy to note that, majority of the youth employed as farmers in both beneficiary and non-beneficiary communities are involved in the cultivation of groundnuts and maize. Beneficiaries of the LIPW programme cultivated an average of 1.7 acres while the non-beneficiary group cultivated an average of 1.2 acres. This is an indication that project beneficiaries could increase their farm size by approximately 32.4%. This suggests that youth in beneficiary communities were financially sound than those in the non-beneficiary communities.

Figure 8.3: Type of crops grown by the youth



8.5 Other welfare benefits of the GSOP LIPW programme

In a study conducted by Drajea and O’Sullivan (2014) in rural Uganda on the influence of poverty on children's education, it was revealed that improvement in parents’ income has a positive effect on their children's education. Parents can pay for their children’s school fees and buy books for them to study. The qualitative evidence gathered from the beneficiary communities revealed a similar trend. Some of the youth mentioned that they were able to re-enrol in school while others were able to purchase essential items for their children at school.

I am a farmer and I have been farming since I was 15 years. Anytime the dry season sets in, I don’t get work to do in this community. Most often I travel to the Wassa community to do galamsey (a local term for illegal mining). In 2016, officials from the District Assembly came to inform us about the labour intensive project. I went and registered my name. In two month time, the work started. I earned a total of GH¢ 700 after the project has ended. I bought five bags of fertilizer to farm. I was able to increase the number of acres I use to farm from 2 acres to 5 acres. Fortunately

for me, I had a good harvest that season. Although my kids are already enjoying the free education provided by the government, they didn't have books for their homework. Their uniforms were also torn. Those days, I was always ashamed when my daughter left for school. I wasn't worried much about the boys because they are boys and they can survive any form of ridicule from their peers. After the harvesting of my crops, I bought new uniforms for them all. I also purchased their homework books. Now, they all have reading books that they read at home." – A male beneficiary, 34 years.

"I dropped out of school when papa died. I did so because it was difficult for my family to raise money to feed. It was my first year at the Senior High School. When the LIPW came to our community I was selected as a beneficiary. By the end of the construction, I had earned about GH¢350. I used the money to enroll back in school. I want to study hard so that I can become a Minister in the future" – Female beneficiary, 19 years

In his article entitled "Poverty and Health", Rowson (2001) mentioned that poverty is the number one killer in the world today, outranking smoking as the leading cause of death. He explained that most of the sicknesses that are recorded especially in developing countries are attributed to lack of funds to seek proper health care and prevention of diseases. Therefore, it is safe to suggest that any development intervention that seeks to empower people to acquire resources to seek health care is geared toward reducing poverty.

Most of the beneficiary youths of the GSOP-LIPW programme mentioned that they were able to renew their health insurance package using funds from the public work programme. The Focus Group interview revealed that beneficiaries were encouraged by the District Assembly Officials

to save part of their monies from the project toward the renewal of their health insurance. And this has resulted in many of them assessing health facilities.

“...My health insurance registration had expired for almost two years. For this period, I have not been able to go to the clinic when I am sick. I always treat myself with local herbs. During the LIPW programme, officers at the District Assembly advise us to use part of our money to register and renew our health insurance. I was able to renew my own. Since then, I have been able to visit the clinic for treatment. This year alone, I have been there twice”. -Male beneficiary, 26 years old.

“The first thing I did with my first pay from the public work programme was to renew my health insurance and that of my three kids. I was always worrying about how to get money to treat my kids any time they are sick. The other time my daughter was sick, I had to sell my pig to be able to take care of her. This made me poorer. I pray my kids don’t get sick, but if they do, I won’t suffer much”- Female, 34 years old.

Others also narrated how the LIPW assisted them in mobilizing resources to marry the love of their life.

“My name is OB. This work has brought a lot of happiness into my life. Before the GSOP work, I needed money to complete my room and also pay for the bride price of the woman I intend to marry. In this community, bride price is very expensive. One need to produce two calves before you are offered a woman to marry. When the work came I was lucky to be registered. I worked for four month and had over GH550. I used some of the money to complete my room and also bought the two calves for the bride price. I am now happily married and living with my wife. It is my prayer that more of such projects come to my community to help the young ones.” –OB, 23 years old.

One young man also narrated how the project help him to pursue his passion as a photographer;

“My name is IF, I am from Konzokalaa community in the Jirapa district. When I completed Senior High School, there was no work for me to do in my community. Personally, I have an interest in photography but have no equipment to start. So, when the GSOP LIPW project came I participated. I used the money I had from the project to purchase a camera and started a photography business. Now I am happy taking nice pictures of this community and its people.” - IF, 25 years old.

8.6 Summary of chapter

This chapter highlighted the contribution of the GSOP LIPW programme in reducing poverty among the youth of the Daffiama Bussie Issa District in Ghana. Key poverty indicators as perceived by the youth include; income, farm size, livestock holdings and food consumption. A comparative analysis between youth who benefited from the programme and those in other communities who did not benefit from the programme revealed that beneficiaries of the programme had low levels of poverty compared to the non-beneficiaries. The study revealed that beneficiary youth of the LIPW program were able to increased their livestock numbers by 79.1%, their monthly incomes by 24.26%, their food consumption by 16.75% and their farm size by 47.72%. The next chapter present a summary of the findings of the entire study and makes recommendations for the improvement of the GSOP LIPW programme.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings, conclusion and recommendations for this study. The study investigated the effect of the GSOP LIPW programme on poverty and migration among youth in Ghana with the Daffiama Bussie Issah District as a case study. The design and implementation process of the GSOP LIPW was discussed. The views of the programme implementers and beneficiaries were sought to provide input for the improvement for the programme. This chapter highlights the findings from four research questions and four research objectives. It concludes by making recommendations for improving LIPW in Ghana.

9.2 Summary of main findings

This section summaries the results about each of the research questions investigated.

9.2.1 Major findings pertaining to research question 1: How is the GSOP LIPW programme being implemented in Ghana?

The following findings were identified:

- The GSOP LIPW programme is implemented through the already established decentralized local government structures in Ghana. There exist a National Project Steering Committee (NPSC) which is responsible for issuing directives regarding the project implementation. There also exist a national secretariat headed by a national coordinator which is responsible for the administration of the programme. At the regional level, the programme is managed

by the Regional Coordinating Council (RCC). The actual implementation is done at the district level by the District Planning and Coordinating Unit (DPCU) of the various District Assemblies (DAs).

- The project is implemented from November to May, the period without rainfall in the Savanna zone of Ghana.
- Beneficiaries are selected using three key targeting techniques. They include, geographic targeting, self-selection and community based targeting. Beneficiaries of the LEAP programme are given priority over other members of the community.
- Training is periodically conducted for programme implementers at the district level. Before a project is commenced in a district, the NCO conducts capacity gap analysis to determine the training needs in the district and then conduct training to mitigate the deficiency.
- Monitoring and Evaluation of the programme is participatory involving both communities and programme implementers.
- Beneficiaries of the project are paid GH¢ 7 for six hours work in a day. They are paid through the E-zwich electronic payment system.

9.2.2 Major findings pertaining to research question 2: What are the challenges of the GSOP LIPW programme?

The following were identified as the challenges facing the programme and its implementation:

- Capacity problems including few staff to monitor the project, inadequate vehicle, and frequent breakdown of motor bikes are a major challenge for the programme implementation.

- Delays in the release of funds to pay contractors to commence the project disrupt the implementation of the programme. Generally, projects are supposed to commence in November. This provides enough time for programme implementers to implement the programme before the rains begins in May. If funds are delayed, most projects are disrupted by the heavy rainfall.
- Interference by politicians in the selection of beneficiaries by making sure their preferred candidates are selected do not help the programme to obtain its goal of reaching the poorest in the communities.
- Delays in the payment of wages for beneficiaries create a lot of discomfort for the poor vulnerable beneficiaries.
- The wage rate of GH¢7 was set without any sort of consultation with the community. Beneficiaries therefore are not satisfied with the amount paid to them.
- Beneficiaries are not satisfied with the period of engagement in the project. Most of them work for less than six month. They want the project to engage them for six months.
- Assets created by the project are not well maintained by community members.

9.2.3 Major findings pertaining to research question 3: What is the impact of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out migration?

In answering this research question, the Daffima Bussie Issah District was used as a case study.

The following were major findings derived:

- Young females migrate from the Daffiama Bussie Issah district than their male counterparts. This collaborates earlier findings made by Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) that migration is becoming more feminized.

- Most (69%) of youth from the Daffiama Bussie Issa District migrate to rural farming communities in southern Ghana while 31% migrate to urban centers in the south of Ghana. They mostly migrate to Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Greater Accra and Eastern regions.
- Young migrants from the Daffiama Bussie Issa District mostly migrate to search for job opportunities in the south.
- The GSOP LIPW has no impact on migration among the youth in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District. The reason is that the dugouts provided by the project to create employment for the youth in the dry season in the various communities have been plagued with so many challenges. The challenges include; drying up of the dugout, lack of money to purchase irrigation equipment for dry season farming, pest and disease infestation of crops, and lack of access to land near to the dugouts. The youth therefore abandon dry season farming and migrate to the south of Ghana.

9.2.4 Major findings pertaining to research question 4: How has the Ghana LIPW programme contributed to the reduction of poverty among youth?

In answering this research question, the Daffiama Bussie Issa District was used as a case study. The GSOP LIPW has contributed to the reduction of poverty among the youth in Daffiama Bussie District in the following ways:

- Beneficiary youth of the programme has 71.1% more livestock than their colleagues in other communities who did not benefit from the programme
- Average monthly income which is a critical factor in determining poverty is 24.26% higher for beneficiary youth as compared to the non-beneficiaries.

- The youth who benefited from the programme are able to increase their farm size by 47.72% as compared to the non-beneficiary youths.
- Beneficiaries of the programme are also able to spend more on food and also eat nutritious food than the non-beneficiary youth of the programme.

9.3. Recommendations

Recommendations proposed for the improvement of the programme are as follows:

- Capacity gap analysis in selected districts for LIPW projects should be extended to include adequacy of staff. Although the National Coordinating Office of GSOP conducts training needs assessment in beneficiary districts to determine training deficiencies, it was revealed in the study that, the adequacy of staff to monitor the implementation of the programme in implementing districts is not given serious attention. It is therefore recommended that after determining capacity gaps in terms of staff to implement and monitor projects, district assemblies should be empowered to recruit more to fill the deficiencies. Beneficiary district assemblies could also engage the National Service Scheme to post personnel to assist in the programme implementation.
- Bureaucracies in accounting procedures should be reduced to ensure prompt release of funds for project implementation. This will go a long way to ensure that funds reach beneficiaries at the time that they need it most, given that the GSOP LIPW programme is billed to engage beneficiaries in the season in which they are hit hardest by poverty and unemployment which happens to fall between November and May. This will also ensure that projects are completed before the raining season which mostly disrupt the smooth implementation of LIPW programmes. Most of the beneficiaries are farmers and depend

on rainfall for farming. Releasing funds for early commencement of LIPW projects will help solve the problem where engagement in LIPW projects conflict with the agricultural activities of the beneficiaries. Beneficiaries most often abandon the project during the rainy season to engage in their regular farming activities.

- Beneficiaries should be consulted in the setting of wage rate for the programme. In this way, beneficiaries will understand the reason behind setting the wage rate below the minimum wage rate for unskilled labour. They will appreciate the fact that the wage rate is set to discourage the rich from participating while attracting more poor and vulnerable people to the programme. Any concerns raised by the beneficiaries with regard to the wage rate could be addressed during this consultative exercise. This will go a long way in preventing resentment provoking misunderstanding among the beneficiaries and programme implementers.
- The National Coordinating Office should design maintenance guidelines/checklists for beneficiary districts and communities. This should involve the formation of an asset management committee in beneficiary communities to ensure that the facilities that are created are well maintained. It is also recommended that District Assemblies assume responsibility for maintenance of the facilities in the district and conduct periodic monitoring after project execution to ensure that communities are reminded to undertake routine maintenance of the facility. This will ensure the sustainability of the assets.
- Government should ensure that the youth have easy access to affordable loans to enable them purchase other capital intensive equipment needed for the usage of dugouts. It is also recommended that beneficiaries of the LIPW programme be linked up to the Microfinance

and Small Loans Centers (MASLOC). MASLOC is noted for providing cheap loans with good repayment terms in rural Ghana (Oduro-Ofori, 2014).

- This study revealed that LIPW is capable of reducing poverty among the youth in Ghana. It is therefore recommended that the Government scale up the project to cover more communities in order to reduce poverty in Ghana.
- Lerner's 5Cs of positive youth development should be incorporated into the design of LIPW programmes. Lerner's 5Cs include, competence, character, confidence, connection and compassion (Lerner, 2005). Lerner mentioned that youth who have higher levels of the 5Cs will contribute more to community development. Emphasis on competence, connections and character will be crucial for the development of youth in the Daffiama, Bussie, Issa District. By competence, I imply developing the vocational skills of the youth. Therefore, training should be a key component of the LIPW programme. Training should focus on impacting skills on the youth. They should be trained on alternative livelihood strategies especially on dry season farming, entrepreneurship and financial management. This will assist the youth to effectively manage their funds and invest in productive ventures after the LIPW programme has elapsed. Connection on the other hand involves positive bonds with people that are reflected in exchanges between the individual and his or her peers. Assisting youth to form groups or cooperatives such as Village Savings and Loans Associations (VLSA) will facilitate strong bonding between them. This will enable the youth to mobilize capital mostly needed for investment in dry season farming and other livelihood strategies. This will also help the youth to share challenges and identify best practices in promoting their ventures. By character, Lerner mentioned respect for societal and cultural norms. Therefore, sensitization of youth by the district assembly staff should

not only focus on issues of project implementation but should include, inculcating attitude of discipline, respect and sense of right and wrong. This will encourage the youth to effectively mobilize to maintain and sustain the facilities provided through the LIPW programme. They will see the need to conduct periodic desilting of the dugouts to ensure constant flow of water for their collective benefit.

I therefore propose a new model of LIPW programme for the youth known as ‘LIPW +3Cs’. In this model, I incorporated three Cs from Lerner’s 5Cs, that is ‘C’ompetence’, ‘C’onnection’ and ‘C’haracter’. Although Subbarao et al. (2013) proposed a model of public work programme known as ‘Public Work Plus’, Their model related to public work activities that only included a training component that sought to provide employable skill. ‘LIPW +3Cs’ will not only train the youth to acquire employable skills after the programme (Competence) but will assist them to establish a network among themselves and other supporting institutions (Connections). Issues of character which encompasses a sense of right and wrong will also be inculcated in the youth to assist them to function effectively in the society (Character).

Recommendation for further study

The study was conducted in communities where GSOP constructed dams/dugouts. This is just one subproject of the GSOP LIPW. Communities where GSOP implemented afforestation projects and feeder roads need to be investigated to determine its effect on poverty and migration among the youth.

9.4 Research contribution

Research on LIPW programmes in Ghana has been scarce and mostly limited to road construction public work programmes. Ashong (1996) focused on the capacity of labour intensive road construction projects in creating mass employment for rural people. Twumasi-Boakye (1996) also looked at the implementation challenges facing the road construction sub-project of LIPW programmes. Stock and de Veen (1996) on the other hand traced the historical development of road construction with labour intensive technology in Ghana.

Although Osie-Akoto, Bawakyillenuo, Owusu and Office (2017) discusses the impact of LIPW programmes on poverty, they did not focus on how youth in particular are impacted by the programme. This study is first of its kind because it focuses on youth and also widens the scope to cover dams and dugout sub construction projects of LIPW programmes. This study is also unique because it employs Participatory Learning for Action (PLA) as a methodology to unravel the challenges facing youth in LIPW projects. The PLA methodology also assisted in making youth centred recommendations in improving the programme.

This study also contributes to the practice of LIPW programmes by proposing a model of LIPW programme for the youth known as LIPW +3Cs. The advantage of this model is that beneficiary youth will not only acquire employable skills but develop networks and character that will assist them to function properly in society.

9.5 Conclusion

The study investigated the challenges confronting the GSOP LIPW programme from both implementers and beneficiaries' perspective. It was revealed that the programme is challenged with capacity problems including inadequate staff to monitor project implementation, frequent

breakdown of vehicles and delays in the release of funds for project implementation. Beneficiaries also revealed that they were not satisfied with the amount of money paid to them as wage, the delays in payment of wages, and the duration of their involvement in the project.

The study further investigated the effect of the GSOP LIPW programme on youth out migration from the northern part of Ghana to the south. It concluded that the programme has no effect on migration among the youth. However, it was revealed that the programme has actually assisted in reducing poverty among the youth in the Daffiama Bussie Issa District. It is therefore recommended that the government scale up the programme to cover more districts to ensure that poverty is reduced in Ghana.

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APENDIX A: PERMISSION LETTER

Samuel Nuamah Eshun
University of South Africa
Pretoria
South Africa

The District Coordinating Director
Various Districts
Upper West Region

Dear Sir/Madam,

Subject: Requisition for data and information related to the Ghana Labour Intensive Public Work Programme for Academic/Study purpose.

1. The above matter has reference.
2. I am currently registered for a Doctorate degree with the University of South Africa, under the Supervision of Prof. Mpho Dichaba in the department of Adult Education and conducting a research project entitled: “Labour Intensive Public Work as a Tool for Unskilled Youth Development: the Ghanaian Experience”.
3. The research has adopted a Matched Case Control study design where both project communities and participants will be matched with non-project communities and non-participants in order to evaluate the impact of these interventions at a broader level.
4. The outcome of the study will come out with an improvement plan for the Ghana Labour Intensive Public Work Programme which can be assessed to benefit your district
4. It is therefore anticipated for the study to acquire and make use of various secondary project administrative data sets as well as primary data collected through the use of a questionnaire and various field visits for analysis.
5. Permission is therefore requested from you to interview the various officers responsible for the implementation of the Labour intensive public work programme in your district. We also request for

a copy of the list of the unskilled labour that participated in the implementation of the public work programme. We further request that you offer us an introductory letter to visit the selected communities for the study.

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6. Thanking you in advance

Mr. Samuel Nuamah Eshun

Email: 64078779@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Tel. 0205005908

APENDIX B: CONSENT LETTER

Date: 2018

Title: Labour Intensive Public Work as a Tool for Unskilled Youth Development: the Ghanaian Experience

DEAR PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANT

My name is Samuel Nuamah Eshun. I am conducting a research under the supervision of Prof. Mpho Dichaba in the Department of Adult Education and Youth Development toward a doctorate degree in education at the University of South Africa.

We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled “Labour Intensive Public Work as a Tool for Unskilled Youth Development: The Ghanaian Experience”.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

This study is expected to collect important information that could explain how the Ghana Labour Intensive Public Work programme is benefiting the unskilled rural youth. The study will come out with an improvement plan that will help advance the course of youth and the vulnerable in society

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

The study seek to collect information from programme implementers and people who reside in communities that has benefited from public work intervention as well as controlled communities that are selected to aid in the comparative analysis of the programme success. You happen to fall under one of this category.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

The study plan to interview and administer questionnaire on the selected participant. The questions that will be asked has to do with the programme implementation, poverty, unemployment and migration. Your participation will not take more than 30 minutes of your time

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There are no other risk than only taking less than 30 minutes of your time.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

Your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give. Your answers will be given a code number or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER(S) PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet in Wa Municipal for future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There is no payment for your participation in the study

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Samuel Nuamah Eshun on 0205005908 or kojonuamah2619@gmail.com. Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Prof. Mpho Dichaba at dichamm@unisa.ac.za.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank you.

Samuel Nuamah Eshun

APENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by Mr. Samuel Nuamah Eshun from the Department of Adult Education and Youth Development at the University of South Africa. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted.

I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be recorded into the questionnaire/digital recording device to ensure an accurate recording of my responses.

I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in the thesis and/or publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous.

I was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty by advising the researcher.

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant Name: _____

Participant Signature: _____

Date: _____

APENDIX D: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR LIPW PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTERS

1. Describe the implementation process of the Ghana LIPW programme?
2. What is your role in the implementation process
3. What challenges do you face as you perform these roles?
4. How can the Ghana LIPW programme be improved?

APENDIX E: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS ON BENEFICIARIES PERSPECTIVE ON THE PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

1. How did you hear about the LIPW project?
2. What was the role of the community in selecting the project for implementation?
3. How were beneficiaries selected to join the project?
4. Was the selection procedure fair?
5. How will you describe the flow of information from implementers to beneficiaries and vice versa during the project implementation?
6. Were information given to beneficiaries adequate?
7. What was the nature of activities for both men and women during the project implementation?
8. Were you involved in the wage rate negotiation?
9. How much were you paid and how?
10. Were you paid on time?
11. What were your challenges during the project implementation
12. How has the community benefited from the project?

**APPENDIX F: QUESTIONAIRE ON BENEFICIARY ASSESSMENT OF THE LIPW
PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION**

District	Community

1.0 Background characteristics of respondents

1.1 Sex of the respondent

Female	1
--------	---

Male	2
------	---

1.2 Age of Respondent _____

1.3 Marital Status

Married	1
Divorced/Separated	3
Desertion	

Single(never married)	2
Widow/Widower	4
Other (Specify)	20

1.4 What is the highest level of education?

No education	1
Junior High	3
College	5
University	7

Primary	2
Secondary	4
Polytechnic	6
Others (specify)	20

1.5 What is your occupation _____

2.0 Beneficiary assessment of the implementation of the LIPW project

2.1 How did you hear about the LIPW project?

2.2 Why did you choose to participate in the LIPW project?

2.3 How long were you involved in the implementation?

2.4 Please rate your level of satisfaction for the following components of the implementation of the LIPW project in your community.

a. adequacy and flow of information

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

b. selection of beneficiaries

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

c. wage rate

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

d. timeliness of payment

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

e. mode of payment

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

f. duration of involvement

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

g. quality of the asset created

Very unsatisfied	1	Unsatisfied	2	Somehow satisfied	3
Satisfied	4	Very satisfied	5		

3 What can be done to improve on the project implementation?

4 How have you benefited from the project implementation?

APENDIX G: QUESTIONNAIRE ON IMPACT OF THE LIPW ON YOUTH OUTMIGRATION

Type of community				District	Community
LIPW community	1	Controlled community	2		

This questionnaire takes part of an academic study. It is very important that you honestly respond what you think, since that will help me to get background information and to know the support that young people in your community need to achieve their goals. All the information is anonymous and confidential. Thanks for your participation.

1.0 Background characteristics

1.1 Sex of the household head

Female	1
--------	---

Male	2
------	---

1.2 Age of household head _____

1.3 Size of household _____

1.4 What is the highest level of education of household head?

No education	1
Junior High	3
College	5
University	7

Primary	2
Secondary	4
Polytechnic	6
Others (specify)	20

1.5 What is the occupation of household head? _____

Migration

2.1 How many household member(s) within the ages of 15 to 35 migrated during the last dry season?

2.2 Why did they move out of the community? (Give reasons for each member)

2.3 Where did each migrated member went to?

2.4 Are you aware of their employment status at their destination? Yes ____ No ____

b. If Yes, give a description of their employment status

2.5 Are you aware of their living conditions at their destination? Yes ____ No ____

b. If yes, please describe their living conditions as compared to here

APPENDIX H: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS ON USAGE OF LIPW INFRASTRUCTURE BY THE YOUTH

1. What are the good side of being a youth in this community?
2. What are the challenges facing youth in this community?
3. How is the infrastructure created by the LIPW project being used by the youth?
4. What are the challenges facing the usage of the LIPW infrastructure?
5. What can be done to ameliorate the problems facing the usage of the facility?

**APPENDIX I: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION QUESTIONS ON YOUTH
UNDERSTANDING OF POVERTY AND EFFECT OF THE LIPW ON POVERTY**

What is poverty?

What are the indicators of poverty?

How have you as a youth benefited from the LIPW programme? (For only treatment community)

APPENDIX J: QUESTIONNAIRE ON IMPACT OF LIPW ON POVERTY AMONG YOUTH

Type of community				District	Community
LIPW community	1	Controlled community	2		

This questionnaire takes part of an academic study. It is very important that you honestly respond what you think, since that will help me to get background information and to know the support that young people in your community need to achieve their goals. All the information is anonymous and confidential. Thanks for your participation.

1.0 Background characteristics of respondents

1.1 Sex of the respondent

Female	1
--------	---

Male	2
------	---

1.2 Age of Respondent

15-24	1
-------	---

25-35	2
-------	---

1.2b how old are you? _____

1.3 Marital Status

Married	1
Divorced/Separated	3
Desertion	

Single(never married)	2
Widow/Widower	4
Other (Specify)	20

1.4 What is the highest level of education?

No education	1
Junior High	3
College	5

Primary	2
Secondary	4
Polytechnic	6

University	7
------------	---

Others (specify)	20
------------------	----

1.5 What is your occupation

b if you are a crop farmer, what was the size of your last crop farm?

2. What will you estimate is your individual or personal total regular income per month?

Income component	Amount GH
Salary/wages/earnings from self-employment, informal trading, small scale agriculture	
Money (remittances) from family members living outside the household but in Ghana	
Money (remittances) from family members living outside Ghana	
Money from government (LEAP)	
Money from other sources/business activities e.g. child maintenance, proceeds from rent etc.	
Total regular monthly income (addition of the income components)	

3 Please estimate the amount of money you spend on the following expenses per month

	Amount GH
Food	
Alcohol/Tobacco	
Clothing	
Rent	
Furniture	
Household expenses	
Medical	
Communication	
Child care	
Medicals	
School fees/uniform/books	
Communication	

Transportation	
Others (Specify)	

4 Please list any livestock asset and the number you owe

Livestock	Number

5 What was the size of your crop farm after the LIPW _____(for treatment community only)

6 How has the LIPW programme benefited you (for treatment community only)

It has improve my life	1	My life remain unchanged	2	It has deteriorated my life	3
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APENDIX K: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2019/02/13

Ref: **2019/02/13/64078779/51/MC**

Name: Mr SN Eshun

Student: 64078779

Dear Mr Eshun

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2019/02/13 to 2024/02/13

Researcher(s): Name: Mr SN Eshun
E-mail address: 64078779@mylife.unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 20 500 5908

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof MM Dichaba
E-mail address: Dichamm@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: +27 12 481 2727

Title of research:

Labour intensive public work as a tool for unskilled youth development: The Ghanaian experience

Qualification: D. Ed in Adult Basic Education & Youth Development

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2019/02/13 to 2024/02/13.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2019/02/13 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.




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2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2024/02/13**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2019/02/13/64078779/51/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,



Prof AT Motlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za



Prof V McKay
EXECUTIVE DEAN
Mckayvi@unisa.ac.za



Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

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APPENDIX K: LANGUAGE EDITING CONFIRMATION

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

*Faculty of Integrated Development Studies
Department of Environment and Resource Studies*

P.O. Box 520 Wa
UWR, GHANA.
W/AFRICA

Email: ykadiri@uds.edu.gh



9th December, 2019

To Whom It May Concern


Dear Sir/Madam,

EDITING CONFIRMATION

I hereby confirm that, I did language editing for Mr. Samuel Nuamah Eshun's PhD Thesis entitled: " LABOUR INTENSIVE PUBLIC WORK (LIPW) PROGRAMME AS A TOOL FOR UNSKILLED YOUTH DEVELOPMENT: THE GHANAIAN EXPERIENCE".

Thank you.

Yours faithfully


Abdul-Kadri Yahaya (Ph.D)
(Senior Lecturer)

Dr. Abdul-Kadri Yahaya
MSc, Ph.D.
Dept. of Environment and Resource Studies
FIDS-UDS, Wa Campus
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